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THE HISTORY OF GEOGRAPHY AS A SUBJECT IN THE CURRICULUM  
OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FROM 1776 TO 1860

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Faculty  
of the Graduate School of Arts and Literature  
In Candidacy for the Degree of  
Master of Arts

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

By

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## CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

In our colonial schools reading and writing seem to have been universally taught<sup>1</sup>. Spelling was also taught in most schools. The Bible was used as a reader, and such emphasis was placed upon moral and religious aims of education as to indicate that the more practical aims were accorded little consideration. Such subjects as English grammar, geography, and history are mentioned only occasionally in discussions of the curriculum of the colonial schools. In the boys' schools reading, writing, and spelling were often taught during the day, while arithmetic was left to be studied in the evening.<sup>2</sup> Geography was usually taught in connection with mathematics and astronomy.<sup>3</sup> At the close of the Revolutionary War arithmetic had not yet won an entirely undisputed place in the curriculum, and geography, English grammar, and history were facing a long, determined struggle for the places which they now hold in the curriculum of the elementary school.

It is the purpose of this thesis to trace the history of the subject of geography through the period in which it won for itself the place which it now occupies. The early history of the subject in the English and colonial schools will be merely touched upon by way of furnishing a background

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1. Merriwether: Our Col. Curric. pp. 25-40.

2. Ibid, p. 160

3. Ibid, p. 141.





for the movement which began shortly after the Revolutionary War. For the period previous to 1800 we have little indisputable evidence, but after that date the evidence is sufficient to enable one to trace in considerable detail the gradual gain made by the subject until it was firmly established as a part of the elementary school curriculum. It was not possible in a thesis of as limited scope as this to trace this development in the schools of all the states. Instead, a limited number of states representing New England, the Middle Atlantic States, the South Atlantic States, and the North Central States were chosen. Of course the West was omitted because of the fact that geography was well established in the curriculum before the states of that section had organized school systems. The states included in the list are Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Virginia, North Carolina, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Missouri. It is felt by the writer that these states are representative of the country at large. New England may appear to have more than her share of representation, but the New England States were leaders in educational affairs and were among the first to include geography in the elementary school curriculum. A fair account of the introduction of the subject into our schools must therefore include an account of what took place in those states.



The actual introduction of the subject into the curriculum has been treated in two periods, that preceding 1820, and that extending from 1820 to 1860. The first of these two periods was one of gradual gain, but the second period included a wave of enthusiasm in favor of the new subject which finally resulted in its being required in the schools of some states and being included in the list of subjects in which prospective teachers were to be examined in a number of others.

Following the discussion of the introduction of the subject to the curriculum there is an analysis of the early geography textbooks. Sixteen books have been included in the list of those examined, beginning with Jedidiah Morse's Geography Made Easy, the tenth edition of which was published in 1806. The choice of the books to be included in the tables was determined by the popularity and use of the books as shown by articles in educational journals, advertisements and reviews in the same journals, and lists of books in use in various states as reported by state superintendents of public instruction. The availability of the books was also a determining factor.

Finally the methods and devices used in teaching geography during the period have been discussed. The emphasis has been placed on the manner of presentation of the material, but the content and the influences back of the change in content have been discussed insofar as they affect the manner of presentation. In a short concluding chapter the writer



has endeavored to set forth the status of the subject in 1860 and to sum up the influences which finally resulted in its inclusion in the elementary school curriculum.





PART I

THE INTRODUCTION OF GEOGRAPHY INTO THE CURRICULUM OF THE  
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL





## CHAPTER II: EARLY BEGINNINGS

Although geography was taught in a few English private schools before 1649<sup>1</sup> we have no positive knowledge that the subject was "systematically taught in any English schools until the eighteenth century".<sup>2</sup> There is little doubt that it was incidentally taught long before that time. There were a number of books dealing with the subjects of cosmography, geography, hydrography, navigation, maps, and globes published previous to 1660.<sup>3</sup> Not a great deal of geography was taught in America previous to the Revolutionary War although America was in large measure the cause of the increased interest in the subject in England.<sup>4</sup> Some geography was taught as mathematics and as astronomy, and there are many textbooks in American libraries which were used during that period. These textbooks were all published in England, since at that time the first American geography had not been written.<sup>5</sup> Considerable ingenuity was shown in devising orreries, planetariums, and other instruments used in teaching astronomy, navigation, geography, and related subjects, but there is some doubt as to the regularity with which these instruments were used after they had been placed in the laboratories.

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1. Watson: The Begin. of the Teach. of Mod. Sub. in Eng. p.103.

2. Ibid, p. 105

3. Ibid, pp. 115-118.

4. Meriwether: pp. 140-145.

5. Ibid.



An examination of the programs of some of the schools in the middle of the eighteenth century gives one a clearer conception of just what was included in geography at that time. We find it merely a minor part of a combination of subjects designed for the special benefit of the seafaring man. According to advertisements in newspapers of that period "the use of the globes" was taught in the Kent County School at Chesterton, Maryland as early as 1745.<sup>1</sup> In 1776 Peter Robinson taught "cosmography, celestial or astronomical, and terrestrial or geographical" and also "the description and use of sea charts, maps, quadrants, forestaffs, nocturnal protractor, scales, Coggershall's rule, sector, gauging rod, universal ring dial, globes, and other mathematical instruments" at Upper Marlboro, Maryland.<sup>2</sup>

These two illustrations serve to show what was meant by geography at that time. Sometimes it was mentioned specifically under the name geography, and at such times it meant the use of globes, mathematical geography, and place geography. The trader, the sailor, the merchant needed to know some geography, as did also the scientist, but it was of little value to the average person in the American Colonies before the Revolutionary War. For that reason we find that it was usually taught in a school of a more or less specialized

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1. Steiner: Hist. Of. Ed. In Ma. p. 33.

2. Ibid.





type, a school designed to prepare boys to become sailors or occasionally in some private school where the sons of the wealthy traders and merchants of the coast towns received their education.

Smith quotes an advertisement from the North Carolina Gazette of July 24, 1778 as follows:

"Mr. Joseph Blyth has opened school in the public school-house, and will teach Latin, English, arithmetic, geography, geometry, trigonometry, and several other of the most useful branches of the mathematics, according to the best and most approved methods. Gentlemen and ladies who favor him with their children may depend that he will be diligent and pay proper attention to their education.

Newbern, July 24"<sup>1</sup>

Considerable interest was shown in education in most of the states during the last two decades of the eighteenth century. As early as 1779 a committee, one of whose members was Thomas Jefferson, reported to the assembly of Virginia a plan for a system of partially state-supported schools. Each county was to be divided into districts or hundreds for the establishment of schools in which reading, writing, and arithmetic were to be taught. There were also to be more advanced schools, twenty in each county, and geography was one of the subjects to be included in the curriculum.<sup>2</sup> Although

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1. Smith, Hist. of Ed. in N.C., p. 42.

2. Morrison: Begin. of Pub. Ed. in Va. pp. 17-18.



nothing was done to carry out the recommendations of this committee, the very fact that the subject of geography was one of those recommended shows that it was receiving serious consideration and was probably becoming fairly common in the more advanced private schools.

The act incorporating the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, passed by the Massachusetts legislature during its session of 1779-1780, names among other objects of the society the encouragement of "astronomical, meterological, and geographical observations".<sup>1</sup> The act was passed May 4, 1780. In October of the same year Phillips Andover Academy was incorporated, and again geography was named as one of the subjects to be taught.<sup>2</sup> The subject was introduced into the schools of Dedham, Massachusetts "soon after Jedidiah Morse published a work on that subject in 1784".<sup>3</sup> The Minutes of the Trustees of Newburg, New York are quoted by Ruttenber to show that in 1790 it was "Agreed that the Reverend George H. Sperin shall be entitled to receive the whole of the rents and benefits arising from the Glebe lands, while he continues to officiate as minister, and teaching the children of the inhabitants of the German patent on the following terms, viz.: Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, History and English Grammar at 12 S. per quarter, Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic at 8 shillings per quarter."<sup>4</sup> It is not clear whether this

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1. The Acts and Resolves of the Province of the Mass. Bay, 1769-1780, pp. 1194-1196. Vol. V, Ch. 46, Sec. 7.

2. Ibid, p. 1418. Ch. 15, Year 1780.

3. Slafter: The Schools and Teachers of Dedham, Mass. pp. 170-171.

4. Ruttenber: Hist. of the Town of Newburgh, p. 245.





school was an academy or an elementary school. ON March 4, 1801 Reverend Seth Hart advertised that he "was disposed to take 6 or 8 boys to board and lodge in his family and be instructed in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, English grammar and the Latin and Greek languages."<sup>1</sup> The law of 1795 in New York State appropriates the sum of twenty thousand pounds annually for a period of five years for maintaining schools in which "the children of the inhabitants residing in this state shall be instructed in the English language or be taught English grammar, arithmetic, mathematics and such other branches of knowledge as are most useful and necessary to complete a good English education; - - - - -"<sup>2</sup> This law is typical of many of the early laws relating to education. It names certain subjects which are to be taught and leaves those in charge of individual systems or schools to decide what other subjects, if any others, are to be included in the curriculum.

Connecticut and Rhode Island also have representatives among the schools teaching geography before 1800. The regulations for the schools in Farmington, Connecticut, adopted April 4, 1796 state that the object of the schools is "to perfect the youth admitted therein in reading and in the grammar of the English tongue, and to instruct them in geography,

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1. Fitzpatrick: The Educational Views and Influence of DeWitt Clinton pp. 11-12.

2. Laws of the State of New York, 1789-1796, p. 626.



arithmetic, composition, and speaking, or any of them."<sup>1</sup>  
Stockwell quotes from an interview with Mr. John Howland in 1847 in which Howland, an energetic and progressive member of the Providence Association of Mechanics and Manufacturers, tells of the influence of that association in the agitation for the establishment of free schools in Providence.

"The introduction of grammar was quite an advance in the system of education, as it was not taught at all except in the better class of private schools. The same was true of geography, which had never been taught before. Geographies could not be bought in this town, so I sent to Boston and purchased as many as were wanted for our schools. Dr. Morse of Charleston had published the first volume of his geography,

and that was the work we adopted. Many thought it an unnecessary study, and in private objected to it because it would take their attention from arithmetic. But it met with no public opposition."<sup>2</sup> According to Mr. Howland the events mentioned took place in 1800.

The state of Connecticut in 1799 took a very definite step toward the recognition of geography as a part of the curriculum of "schools of a higher order". These schools probably corresponded to our upper grades. The law passed in May, 1799, is entitled An Act for appointing, regulating, and encouraging Schools. It provides by a vote of two thirds

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1. Conn. Report of the Supt. of Conn. Sch., 1853, Vol. 8, p. 113.  
2. Stockwell: A Hist. of Publ. Ed. in R.I., 1636-1876. pp. 150-155.





of the inhabitants of a school society present in a legal meeting for the establishment of "schools of a higher order, for the common benefit of the Society, the object of which shall be to perfect the Youth admitted therein in Reading and Penmanship, to instruct them in the rudiments of English grammar, Composition, Arithmetic and Geography, or, on particular desire in the Latin and Greek languages; also in the first principles of Religion and morality, and in general to form them for usefulness in society."<sup>1</sup>

Noah Webster, in an account of the United States in 1806, says of the academies and grammar schools of Connecticut:

"In these are taught not only the primary branches of learning, but geography, grammar, the languages, and higher branches of mathematics."<sup>2</sup>

From 1800 to 1820 geography slowly but surely won for itself a place in the courses of study of many schools. In 1814 Harvard announced that after 1815 geography would be required for entrance.<sup>3</sup> This requirement no doubt had a stimulating effect upon the movement to include geography among the subjects studied in the better class of preparatory schools, but we are not sure that it had any marked effect upon the curriculum in any great number of schools of any sort. It is interesting to note, however, that in the report of a subcommittee appointed in 1817 for considering the advisability of establishing schools for children under seven

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1. Acts and Laws of the State of Conn., 1796-1802, pp. 502-506.

2. Barnard: Schools as they were Sixty Years ago. In Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Ed., Vol. 26, 1876, p. 202.

3. Martin: The Evol. of the Mass. Pub. Sch. System. p. 127.



years, there is a statement that "In the public Schools in this town (Boston), the children are taught the principles of the English language, and likewise the elements of Writing, Arithmetic, and Geography."<sup>1</sup> It is probable that geography was taught in Boston before this time, but this is the first reference we have to the subject actually being taught in the Boston town schools.

During this same period geography was taught in a number of private schools in St. Louis. Scharf quotes an advertisement from the Missouri Gazette of January 11, 1809 to show that a Mr. Schewe advertised that he would teach geography, as well as other subjects, at that time.<sup>2</sup> On November 16, 1809 Isaac Septliveres advertised that he would teach drawing, geography, mathematics, and French grammar.<sup>3</sup> In the year 1816 Timothy Flint and James Sawyer "associated for the purpose of continuing to teach the first principles of education upon the Lancastrian system, and the higher branches, as grammar, geography, with the use of maps and globes, composition, rhetoric, the Latin and Greek languages, mathematics and philosophy."<sup>4</sup>

The subject had gained a foothold in the academies of North Carolina also at the beginning of the nineteenth century. As early as 1806 it was included in the course of

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1. Wightman: Ann. of the Boston Prim. Sch. Com., 1818-1855, p. 25.

2. Scharf: Hist. of St. Louis City and County, p. 824.

3. Ibid.

4. Ibid, p. 825.





study of the Boarding School for Female Education at Salem, North Carolina,<sup>1</sup> and an editorial in the Raleigh Star of March 15, 1810 lists geography as one of the subjects taught in the English department of Raleigh Academy at that date.<sup>2</sup> We know that the first of these two schools was not in reality a secondary school, because girls were admitted at the ages of eight and twelve years and were not allowed to remain after they were fifteen.<sup>3</sup> As early as 1803 a man named O'Farrel had introduced a bill in the legislature providing for the establishment of an academy in each county in the state. The bill included a statement as to what should be taught in these academies, and geography was included in the list. The bill failed to pass.<sup>4</sup> Again in 1817 the report of a committee appointed for the consideration of the governor's message on education outlined a plan for the establishment of free schools in the state. Reading, writing, and arithmetic were to be taught in the primary schools, and geography was included in the course of study of the academies. This proposal was referred to a committee and finally incorporated into a bill which failed to pass.<sup>5</sup>

Although none of these proposals were made law they show a decided tendency to include geography in the academy curriculum. It must be remembered that many of these academies

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1. Raper: The Church and Private Schools of North Carolina, p. 89.

2. Coon: The Begin. of Pub. Ed. in N.C., Vol. I, p. 76.

3. Raper: p. 89.

4. Coon: p. 46.

5. Ibid, p. 139.



which are mentioned were not schools of a particularly advanced type. The subject taught usually included Latin and sometimes Greek, but the other subjects were the same as have been taught in the sixth, seventh and eighth grades since the middle of the last century. Some were certainly genuine secondary schools, but more were not far enough advanced to be so ranked.





### CHAPTER III: THE PERIOD FROM 1820 TO 1860

Beginning with the second decade of the nineteenth century there was launched a movement which was probably more influential than any other one thing in finally placing geography among the studies pursued in practically every elementary school in the United States. I do not refer to any great educational reform but merely to the movement of settlers into the West. Of course there were many settlements in the West before 1810, and the movement had been going on for many years, but the number of persons crossing the Allegheny Mountains into the valleys of the Ohio and other western rivers in any one year before 1812 was relatively insignificant as compared with the numbers who poured into the West during the succeeding years. The following quotation illustrates the magnitude of this movement:

"The growth of the West, to which we have already referred, was phenomenal in the early decades of the century. There had long been an intermittent stream of migration over the mountains from the sea-coast states. Whenever times were bad or the ocean commerce was seriously interfered with, many turned their faces westward and sought new homes, expecting to begin life over again in the wilderness. Between 1810 and 1816 the population of Ohio increased from two hundred and thirty thousand to about four hundred thousand. In the same period the number of people in Indiana leaped from





twenty-four thousand to nearly three times that number. The Southern sea-coast States poured their citizens into Illinois and the territories of the Southwest.----

After 1816 the tide of migration to the West became a mighty current. 'We are', said Calhoun at that time, 'greatly and rapidly, - I was about to say fearfully growing'. Steam-boats plied up and down the western rivers and travelers thronged the roads to the interior."<sup>1</sup>

This great movement had an effect upon the curriculum of the American schools similar to that exerted by the period of exploration and settlement upon that of the English schools. There was an increased demand for geography. People wished to know more about this new region to which their friends and relatives were going. Trade across the mountains increased in volume, and the demand for more knowledge of the region with which this trade was being carried on was a natural one. There was no great leader who was particularly influential in the movement to include geography in the curriculum of the elementary schools. The demand simply grew with the country. It was a demand for a greater knowledge of the newly settled parts of this rapidly growing country.

During this same period American trade with foreign countries was increasing rapidly. Our increasing importance as a commercial nation was another factor in the introduction

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1. McLaughlin: Hist. of the Amer. Nat. pp. 263-265.



of geography into the curriculum. The exchange of goods with foreign peoples naturally resulted in exchange of ideas as well. There grew up a demand to know more of the products which other people had for exchange and also of the habits and customs of the various nationalities, of their government, and of their manner of living.

Of course these demands had begun to bear fruit before 1820, but the demand seems to have increased much more rapidly from that time forward if we can judge by the results. A contemporary account in 1834 gives us the course of studies in the grammar schools of Boston at that time. It is as follows:

"Class IV, Spelling, Reading. Class III, Spelling and Reading, continued. English Grammar. Class II, Spelling, Reading, and English Grammar, continued, Geography, Persing, Class I, Spelling, Reading, Grammar, and Geography, continued. History of the United States, Composition, Declamation."<sup>1</sup>

The writer of the article then proceeds to enumerate the conditions under which arithmetic and other studies are taught. We see that geography was taught in the two highest grades of the elementary school. Even before that time, as early as 1827 there was a law in Massachusetts requiring each town or district in the state containing fifty families or householders to "provide itself with a teacher or teachers

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1. Woodbridge: Boston Public Schools. In Amer. Ann. of Ed. and Instruct. Vol. 4., 1834, p. 558.





of good morals, to instruct children in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, and good behavior, for such term of time as shall be equivalent to a term of six months for one school in each year:-----"<sup>1</sup>

This law was approved by the governor on March 10, 1827. It says nothing about schools in districts or towns of less than fifty families; so we cannot yet say that geography was required in the schools of Massachusetts. However, all uncertainty was removed twelve years later. In 1839 another law dealing with the subject of education was passed, and part of the first section of this law reads as follows:

"In every town in this Commonwealth, there shall be kept, in each year, at the charge of the town, by a teacher or teachers of competent ability, and good morals, one school for the instruction of children in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, and good behavior, for the term of six months, or two or more schools for terms of time which shall together be equivalent to six months;-----."<sup>2</sup>

Although this law does not specify, as did the law of 1827, that there is to be a school in districts in which there is no town, there seems to be no uncertainty whatever as to what is to be taught in the schools, and geography had undoubtedly won its place in the schools of Massachusetts in 1839.

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1. Laws of the Commonwealth of Mass. Jan. 3-March 10, 1827, Ch. CXLIII, Sec. I.

2. Acts and Resolves Passed by the Legislature of Mass., 1839, Ch. 26, Sec. I.





Many states hesitated to prescribe the studies which should be taught in the schools. Among such states are Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New York. We have already seen that the state of Connecticut had prescribed certain studies to be taught in "schools of a higher order", but the laws of later years make no reference to the requirements except in the case of certification of teachers. An act passed in 1841 provides that the board of visitors shall prescribe the studies in the schools, but it also provides that this same board "shall themselves, or by a committee by them appointed for this purpose, examine all candidates as teachers in the common school of such society, and shall give to those persons with whose moral character, literary attainments, and ability to teach they are satisfied, a certificate setting forth the branches he or she is found capable of teaching: Provided that no certificate shall be given to any person not found qualified to teach reading, writing, arithmetic and grammar thoroughly, and the rudiments of geography and history."<sup>1</sup> This requirement is a fair indication that the subject was usually taught in the common schools of Connecticut. Mention has already been made of its having been taught in Farmington, Connecticut before 1800. Caulkins also states that geography was taught in "an institution of higher grade than elementary" at

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1. Pub. Acts of the State of Conn., May Session, 1841, p. 47.



Norwich in 1783.<sup>1</sup> An academy was established in this same town in 1782 and at a somewhat later date, we are not told exactly when, Morse's Geography Made Easy was used as a textbook. Jedidiah Morse is said to have been an instructor in this academy at one time.<sup>2</sup> A pamphlet issued in Connecticut in 1828 says that "Geography and grammar have within a few years been introduced extensively. - - - ." <sup>3</sup> We know that geography was taught in Hartford<sup>4</sup> in 1856 and in East Bridgeport<sup>5</sup> during the years 1859 and 1860, since the rules and regulations of the schools in these towns for the years mentioned prescribe it. Physical geography was taught during the last year of the grammar school in East Bridgeport, and the subject was taught in some form in the three preceding years of the grammar school and in the last year of the primary school. Physical geography was taught in the high school in Hartford.

Conditions in Rhode Island were similar to those in Connecticut. In 1820 in Providence a committee on rules and regulations requested the schoolmasters for suggestions as to methods of conducting and improving the schools. The results at that time show that emphasis was placed on reading, writing, arithmetic and spelling. Geography was dropped

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1. Caulkins: Hist. of Norwich, Conn. p. 541.

2. Ibid. p. 542.

3. Smell: Early New Eng. Sch. p. 372.

4. Conn. Rep't of the Supt. of Com. School 1856-1857, pp. 120-

5. Ibid. 1859-1860, pp. 100-103.





from the course of study in 1820 but was restored in 1822.<sup>1</sup> In the Providence "writing schools", the grade of schools higher than the primary, Woodbridge's Small Geography was used in 1828.<sup>2</sup> Some geography was also taught during the first year in the Warren Ladies' Seminary at Warren, Rhode Island in 1834,<sup>3</sup> and in the English department of Kingston Academy at South Kingston in 1854.<sup>4</sup>

The legislation dealing with education in Rhode Island was similar to that in Connecticut. In 1845 a bill was passed providing that neither of the authorities with power to sign teachers' certificates (the chairman of the school committee of any town or the inspector for the county) "shall sign any certificate of qualification unless the person named in the same shall produce evidence of good character, and be found on examination, or by experience, qualified to teach the English language, arithmetic, penmanship, and the rudiments of geography and history, and to govern a school."<sup>5</sup> Here we again have evidence that the subject had established itself in the course of study but that the teachers were not expected to know a great deal about it.

In 1832 a New York City school committee seems to have visited Boston for the purpose of studying their primary

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1. Carroll: Pub. Ed. in R.I. pp. 65-66.

2. Ibid, p. 67.

3. Tolman: Hist. of Higher Ed. in R.I., pp. 84-5.

4. Ibid, p. 40.

5. Rhode Island Acts, Resolves and Reports, 1845-46, (June Sess. 1845) Act Relating to Pub. Sch. Sec. XX, Par. 2.





school system. The New York system was finally modelled after that in Boston with some changes.<sup>1</sup> "The course of study embraced reading, spelling, and writing, with the simple elements of arithmetic and geography, to be taught orally and as far as possible, with visible illustrations by means of a map of the hemispheres, numeral frame, and blackboard."<sup>2</sup> The city had been late in establishing a system of public schools and for that reason data is difficult to obtain.

The New York State Superintendent of Public Instruction reported that in 1833 Woodbridge's, Willets', Oleny's, Morse's, Cumming's, Goodrich's, Hart's, Dwight's, Willard's, Clark's, Peter Parley's, Spafford's, Worcester's, and Hilliard's geographies were in use in different schools in the state.<sup>3</sup> The years immediately following show lists which increase steadily in length from year to year and in which some of the books named are gradually displaced by others. In 1834 Superintendent Flagg says that "the study of arithmetic and geography may not, perhaps, be carried farther than is necessary."<sup>4</sup> He apparently was unwilling to place these two subjects on a par with the others, and yet later in the same report he recommends "a thorough knowledge of the geography of the State of New York, and of the United States,

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1. Boese: Pub. Ed. in the City of N.Y., pp. 59-60.

2. Ibid, p. 60.

3. Flagg: N.Y. Ann. Rep't Supt. of Com. Sch. 1833, pp. 68-73.

4. Ibid, 1834, p. 20.



and so much of the geography of the earth as treats of its general divisions, of their climates, soils, and productions, and such elementary statistics as are usually engrafted upon geographical works."<sup>1</sup>

The laws of 1841 and of 1847 provide the means of securing the necessary revenue through the laying of a tax or the use of the library fund under certain specified conditions for the purchase of globes, maps, blackboards, and other school apparatus.<sup>2</sup> Thus it can be seen that it was within the power of any district to secure the necessary apparatus for teaching geography. The school law of 1847 also contained a certification requirement making it the duty of each town superintendent "to ascertain the qualifications of the candidate, in respect to moral characters, learning, and ability."<sup>3</sup> The law did not specify how the town superintendent should ascertain the qualifications of candidates. In 1851 Samuel S. Randall, at that time Deputy Superintendent of Common Schools, published a small book called The Common School System of the State of New York. Among other things Randall outlined the specific requirements which were to be met before a candidate could be issued a certificate. The candidate was required to be a good speller, a distinct and accurate reader, to be

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1. Ibid, p. 21.

2. Laws of the State of N.Y. 1841, p. 258, Ch. 260, Sec. 10. Also 1847, Vol. I, p. 8, Ch. 8, Sec. 1.

3. Laws of the State of N.Y. 1847, p. 683, Ch. 480, Art. 4, Sec. 35.





able to write a good and plain hand and to make pens, and to be well versed in the definitions of words, in arithmetic, mental and written, in geography, in the history of the United States, in English grammar, and in the use of globes.<sup>1</sup>

This is the third of the states to pass legislation requiring an examination in geography for a teacher's certificate although the subject itself was not required in the schools by law. Neither was any other subject required by law, however, and we are justified in saying that by 1840 geography was taught in most of the schools of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York.

The movement to include geography in the curriculum of the elementary school was not without opposition during the first three or four decades of the century. The New Englanders were inclined to be conservative then as they are now, and on numerous occasions determined opposition threatened to force the subject into the background. The statement has already been made that in 1820 geography was dropped from the course of study in Providence only to be returned again in 1822. Small says, of conditions in Connecticut,

"And so late as 1820, at Glastenburg, Connecticut, there was a unanimous vote of the Board of Visitors 'that the several instructors of the district schools in this society be directed to instruct the children in their respective schools

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1. Randall: The Com. Sch. Sys. of the State of N.Y., p. 157.



in the rudiments of literature, religion, morals and manners; particularly in a knowledge of spelling, reading and writing, and they are directed not to instruct the children in arithmetic, grammar and geography during the regular school hours'. And in 1828 a pamphlet issued in Connecticut states: 'Spelling, reading, writing and arithmetic are taught in nearly every school. Geography and grammar have within a few years been introduced very extensively, but in many places not without great opposition. Even arithmetic until within a few years was excluded from many schools during the day, and only permitted to be taught in the evening schools. Grammar and geography were opposed but with less violence'."1

Wightman quotes from the report of a subcommittee appointed in 1833 to investigate charges that some of the schools had departed from the prescribed course of instruction:

"In School No. 8 Peter Parley's Geography, with Maps and a Globe, had been introduced; also geometrical cards and models of various figures. The geography was used as an occasional reading book by the children; and the other things were also used by the teacher. In three other schools more or less of the same things had been introduced. It appeared further, that, all of them had been given to the schools, though, in some cases, the parents had been requested to purchase the geography for the children."2

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1. Small: Early New Eng. Schools, p. 372.

2. Wightman: Ann. of the Boston Prim. Sch. Com., pp.138-139.





Such quotations give one a rather clear conception of the strength of the opposition to the introduction of any new subject into the curriculum. It is safe to say that conditions were much as they are today. There was a growing demand for a fuller, richer curriculum, but there was also a very decided, though decreasing, opposition to anything new and untried.

The movement to include geography in the elementary school curriculum in the South and West is no further behind the movement in the New England States and New York than conditions would lead one to expect. The economic and social conditions were different in these two regions from the conditions existing in the north-eastern states. The simple fact that the South was to a great extent a region of slave labor and of aristocratic land owners with large plantations retarded the development of a free school system. There was a caste system which practically demanded that the wealthy plantation owner's son be educated in a school apart from that in which the poor man's son received his education. The first state-aided schools established in the South were charity schools to which a child could be sent in case the parent was unable to pay for his education. It is natural to suppose that such subjects as geography, history, and grammar found a place in the better class of private schools at a comparatively early date but that the extension of the curriculum lagged in the primary schools provided for the poor children.





This appears to be what happened.

The subscription papers for Charleston Academy in Jefferson County, Virginia had named geography as one of the subjects to be taught in the school as early as 1795.<sup>1</sup> Shepherdstown Academy, in the same county, included "the use of globes" in its course of study in 1813.<sup>2</sup> In 1824 geography was included in the courses of both Hampden Sidney College and in the preparatory school of the same college.<sup>3</sup> The subject was taught in the Virginia Baptist Seminary at the opening of school in 1833.<sup>4</sup>

Not until 1846 was even a partial public school system provided for by law in Virginia. On March 5 of that year a law was passed which not only provided for the establishment of a school in each district but also specified certain subjects which were to be taught in the schools. A portion of this act is as follows:

"Be it further enacted That in each district a school shall be established in the manner here-in-after provided, in which shall be thoroughly taught reading, writing and arithmetic, and (where it is practicable) English grammar, geography, history, (especially of the state of Virginia and of the United States) and the elements of physical science, and such other higher branches as the school commissioners may direct."<sup>5</sup>

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1. Morrison: The Begin. of Pub. Ed. in Va., p. 129.

2. Ibid.

3. Ibid, p. 105.

4. Ibid, p. 160.

5. Acts of the Gen. Assem. of Va., 1845-46, p. 33. Ch. 41, Sec. 5.



It should be noticed that according to the provisions of the law of 1846 geography was not required but was to be taught merely "where it is practicable" to do so. However, the school law was changed slightly as published in the Code of 1849, and geography was included among the subjects specified, as was also English grammar.

"The said board shall establish a school in each district, in which shall be taught reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, and geography, and, when it is practicable, history, the elements of physical science and such other branches of learning as the said board may require."<sup>1</sup>

In North Carolina the subject did not fare so well. It will be recalled that before 1820 there were several proposals for organizing a public school system but that none of the suggestions were ever incorporated into a bill which finally became law. There was a great deal of opposition to teaching more than the traditional three or four subjects in a tax-supported school as is shown by the introduction of a bill in 1828 by a Mr. McFarland providing that "no commission shall pay for forwarding the education of any person, further than Reading, Writing, English Grammar and Arithmetic".<sup>2</sup> The bill failed of passage but it illustrates the opposition to the inclusion of such subjects as history and geography in the course offered in any school receiving even partial

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1. The Code of Va. 1849, pp. 376-381, Ch. LXXXII, Sec. 11.

2. Coon: The Begin. of Pub. Ed. in N.C. Vol. I, p. 425-426.





state support. The bill which was finally passed did not specify what subjects should be taught in the schools.<sup>1</sup>

Neither did it list geography as a subject in which a teacher must be examined.

Of the states which were originally a part of the Northwest Territory Ohio was the first to be settled and was also a leader in the improvement of her schools. Advertisements of private schools in Akron in the years 1836 to 1838, inclusive, show geography to have been taught in several of them.<sup>2</sup> The Cincinnati Almanac for 1840 says,

"Every parent in this city has it in his power without any direct expense to himself, to give his children a thorough education in Reading, Spelling, Writing, English Grammar, Geography, History, Astronomy, Arithmetic, including the higher branches of Mathematics, Natural Philosophy and Political Economy, comprising a complete instruction in all the branches necessary to the useful purposes of life."<sup>3</sup>

The course of study of the secondary schools seem to have been included; so we have no certain evidence that geography was taught in the elementary schools, but we can be fairly certain that it was, since in 1853 we find it taught in the third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, and ninth years.<sup>4</sup> The ninth year was used for a review of previous work,

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1. Ibid., Vol. II, p. 886-890.

2. Lane, Fifty Years and Over of Akron and Summit County, pp. 112-113.

3. The Cin. Almanac, 1840, p. 55.

4. Twenty-Fourth Ann. Rep't of the Trustees and Visitors of the Com. Sch. of Cin., p. 67.



the terrestrial globe being used more than maps.

Oleny's geography was used in the Bucyrus public schools in 1840,<sup>1</sup> and in 1841 map drawing was taught in the public schools of Portsmouth, Ohio.<sup>2</sup> Smith's geography was used in the Zanesville schools in 1848<sup>3</sup> and Parley's and Morse's geographies in Warren in 1849.<sup>4</sup> Apparently the subject was commonly taught in the schools of Ohio from 1840 to 1850.

Legislation requiring the introduction of geography, or of any subject other than reading, writing, and arithmetic, into the curriculum was not put into effect until almost the middle of the century. The law of 1838 had merely specified that reading, writing, and arithmetic should be taught in the English language.<sup>5</sup> The law passed early in 1849,<sup>6</sup> amending the act of 1838, provided that whenever three or more householders in any district in the state should make known in writing to the directors of the district their desire that English grammar and geography be taught in any school of the district, it should be the duty of the directors to provide for instruction in those subjects. No law was passed before 1860 which made geography an absolute requirement.

Missouri was one of the very first states in the country to require geography in the common schools of the state. It was in 1835 that the act containing the following provision

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1,2,3,4. Hist. Sketches of the Pub. Sch. of the State of Ohio,  
(Pages not numbered.)

5. Gen. and Loc. Laws of O., 1838, Vol. XXXVI, pp. 21-27.

6. Ibid., 1848-1849, p. 43.





was passed:

"In all schools established according to the provisions of this act, there shall be taught, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, English grammar, and such other branches of education (theology excepted) as the funds may justify."<sup>1</sup>

Illinois, on the other hand, failed to pass any legislation requiring the inclusion of geography in the curriculum of the elementary schools of the state. However, the act incorporating the city of Alton in 1837 empowers the common council of the city "to establish elementary or common schools, wherein reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, grammar and other useful branches of English education may be taught."<sup>2</sup>

On the other hand, as late as 1859, an act for the establishment of a system of graded schools in Galesburg gave the board of education power to prescribe the studies to be taught and the books to be used.<sup>3</sup>

Also in the case of the Lee Centre Union Graded School the directors were given power "to regulate the course of studies to be pursued in said institution."<sup>4</sup>

Illinois followed in the path of some of the eastern states by including geography among the subjects in which a candidate for a position as teacher was to be examined. The school law of 1849 contains a provision which required the school commissioners in each county to "examine all persons

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1. Rev. Stat. State of Mo., 1835, p. 568.

2. Laws of the State of Ill. Spec. Sess. 1837, p. 22.

3. Ibid, 1859, p. 164.

4. Ibid, p. 170.





proposing to teach a common school in any township in his county, in relation to his or her moral character and touching his or her qualifications properly to teach orthography, reading in English, penmanship, arithmetic, English grammar, modern geography, and the history of the United States."<sup>1</sup>

In Wisconsin conditions were much the same as in the other states except that the introduction of geography into the curriculum was rather late, or, one might more properly say, the organization of a school system itself did not occur at an early date. The following quotation brings out this fact rather strikingly:

"By 1828 many schools were being established, all supported by private subscription and tuition fees. Green Bay seems to have been most progressive for at Shanty Town Miss Russel and later Miss Sears taught reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar and geography, the latter two studies being looked upon as quite unusual and certainly beyond the power of most teachers to manage."<sup>2</sup>

The law of 1838 established a system of common schools, but according to the provisions of this law the trustees of each district were to determine what subjects should be taught in the schools of the district.<sup>3</sup> This provision remained in force until 1849 when a new school law provided that

"In every district school there shall be taught

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1. Ibid, First Sess. 1849, p. 156.

2. Pray: Early Ed. in Ed. Hist. of Wis., p. 25.

3. Stat. of the Terr. of Wis., 1838-39, pp. 137-139.



orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic, during the time which such school shall be kept, and such other branches of education as shall be determined upon by the board."<sup>1</sup>

In 1854 the wording of the section remained the same except that a provision had been inserted requiring that the teaching be done in the English language.<sup>2</sup>

In summarizing the movement for the introduction of geography into the curriculum between the dates of 1820 and 1840 it may be said that this was a period characterized more by a constant gain in the popularity of the subject and by a gradual addition of geography to the courses of study of schools throughout the states considered than by legislation requiring that it be taught. It is true that such legislation was enacted in Missouri and Massachusetts in 1835 and 1839, respectively, but such legislation was not characteristic of the period from 1820 to 1840. The following decade, however, is certainly well represented by educational legislation which either named geography as a part of the course of study in the elementary schools or listed it as one of the subjects in which prospective teachers were to be examined. Wisconsin and Virginia passed laws requiring the teaching of geography in the elementary schools of those states, and Ohio passed a law which made the require-

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1. Rev. Stat. of State of Wis., 1849, p. 195.

2. Gen. Laws State of Wis., 1854. Ch. 80, Sec. 41.





ment dependent upon the demand. Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, and Illinois school laws required teachers to pass an examination in the subject, and North Carolina alone failed to make either of the requirements mentioned.

This body of legislation proves beyond a doubt that by 1850 geography had won the approval of the people of the country as a whole for its claim to a place in the curriculum of the elementary school. No doubt there were still sections of the country where it had not won an undisputed place, but such places were not typical of the country as a whole. They were the backward sections which were making slow progress in educational matters of all sorts.

In the early part of this chapter some attention was devoted to the influences which led to the rapid growth of the movement to include geography in the curriculum. The two influences discussed were the westward movement and the growth of foreign commerce. At different times during the period from 1776 to 1860 various claims were made for the subject of geography. It is difficult to measure the actual influence exerted by these various claims, but it is probable that each of them was to some degree instrumental in placing the subject in the position it occupied at the end of the period.

One of the most enthusiastic of the champions of geography was V.C. Woodbridge, the author of one of the



most popular textbooks of the second quarter of the nineteenth century. In a lecture before the American Institute of Instruction in 1833 Mr. Woodbridge mentions both special and general objects of the study. Among the former he mentions "the superior skill it gives to the sailor, the soldier, the missionary, and the traveler in their expeditions to various parts of the earth" and to the "merchant and politicians in their calculation of private or national affairs". Among what he calls general objects he mentions

1. Broadening of the mind.
2. The elevation of the mind to God.
3. Knowledge of the location of places.
4. Knowledge as to how to interpret a map.<sup>1</sup>

Woodbridge lays special emphasis on the fourth of these functions, and in this he has anticipated a problem which is still of outstanding importance in the teaching of geography. He says that the child should begin with "the observation of the objects in nature around him."<sup>2</sup> He stresses the necessity of having children see in imagination what the map represents, and as a method of accomplishing this purpose he advocates having the children construct maps from what they see, beginning with plans or maps of a desk, room, playground, or neighborhood.<sup>3</sup> In introducing Woodbridge's ideas on this subject at this particular point the writer has in reality introduced something which properly belongs in a

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1. Introduct. Discourses and Lect. Delivered Before Amer. Instit. of Instruct., 1833, pp. 209-240.

2. Ibid., p. 213.





later chapter, that dealing with the methods of teaching geography; but it seemed proper to give it some attention at this point in order to show just what Woodbridge had in mind when he spoke of the interpretation of maps as being one of the objects of the study. He seems to have had a remarkably clear insight into this problem when one considers the relative newness of the subject in the curriculum at that time.

The second of the objects which he mentions is an interesting one, one which is typical of that period rather than of the more modern scientific period. A quotation from another article by Woodbridge illustrates admirably the hesitancy of the part of many geographers of that period to discuss physical phenomena without reference to religious beliefs or theories:

"But this study, like every other which is concerned with the works of the Creator, ought to be so pursued as to elevate as well as expand the mind - to lift the heart to God through the medium of his works and his unceasing providence, - as well as to warn it towards our fellowmen. It must ever be remembered, that the more knowledge we acquire of physical science, of mere visible things, without associating them with the invisible author, the more do we become attached to earth, and the less likely to rise toward heaven. To this cause it is and not to the nature of their studies, that we ought to ascribe the frequent infidelity of naturalists; and the teacher of geography should take care not to lead his





pupil into error."<sup>1</sup>

Woodbridge makes little effort to justify his statement that geography broadens the mind. Neither does he devote particular attention to the location of places as an object of geography. This latter was probably so commonly accepted as the most important aim at that time that discussion was deemed unnecessary. This particular aim will be discussed more fully in the chapter dealing with methods. No list of claims set forth of the values of a subject would seem complete without the claim that it afforded excellent mental discipline; so we present a quotation from a lecture by a Mr. James G. Carter. This lecture was delivered before The American Institute of Instruction in August, 1830.

"It affords, when studied in the manner I have just described, the best of discipline for several of the powers earliest developed in the infant mind. And, therefore, they should be employed upon it. I do not know that I should go too far, if I should say that, - if the vast amount of geographical knowledge they will acquire, were entirely useless in itself, and if every fact, description and interesting event learned, were utterly obliterated from mind, the moment they close their book, - I would never-the-less put them upon the study for the discipline it affords the mind alone. I know of no one elementary study within the range

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1. Woodbridge: Objects to be Attained in Teaching Geography. In Amer. Annals of Ed. and Instruct. Vol. 4, 1834, p. 71.



of subjects adapted to the capacities of children, which calls into exercise so many of their faculties, and trains them in such an agreeable manner, as geography, when it is properly studied."<sup>1</sup>

Another interesting attempt to justify the inclusion of the subject in the curriculum of the elementary school is made by a Mr. Henry Sumner of South Carolina in 1847. Mr. Sumner apparently attempts to justify the subject almost entirely on the grounds of its being "a pleasing and delightful study" as is shown by the following quotation:

"Geography is a pleasing and delightful study. To learn the situation of the different countries of the earth, the location of large cities, the relative position of the different nations with respect to each other, together with their statistics and reciprocal commercial influence, is interesting and instructive. With this branch should be connected a sufficient knowledge of astronomy, to enable the pupil to know something of the position that our earth sustains to the solar system."<sup>2</sup>

We do not doubt that the subject was interesting; yet, after considering the methods of teaching one will be inclined to wonder if it really could have been more than slightly so.

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1. Carter: On the Development of the Intellectual Faculties and On Teaching Geography. In Introductory Discourses and Lect. Before the Amer. Instit. of Instruct., 1830, pp. 92-93.
  2. Sumner: Suggestions Rel. to the Free Sch. Syst. of S.C. (pamphlet), p. 9.





PART II

TEXTBOOKS AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION



## CHAPTER IV

### EARLY TEXTBOOKS IN GEOGRAPHY

One of the most popular of the English textbooks used in the schools of the American Colonies and also to a considerable extent even after the Revolutionary War was that of Patrick Gordon. The twentieth edition of this book was published in London in 1754. It contained four hundred sixteen pages and twenty-two maps. All of the maps were fairly complete except that of North America. The map of North America is very inaccurate, and the region north of a line extending west from Lake Superior and west of Hudson Bay is marked "Parts Undiscovered". The source of the Rio Grande is shown in what is now eastern Montana. The maps are uncolored and are on double-sized sheets which fold back into the book.

The book is divided into two parts, the first consisting of definitions of terms used in physical and mathematical geography, geographical theorems, geographical problems, and geographical paradoxes; and the second of the descriptive geography of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. Some of the problems and paradoxes are interesting and also rather amusing. The following problem is typical:

"Prob. 11. To know by the Globe when the Great Mogul of India, and the Emperor of Russia, sit down to dinner.

This being only to know when it is Noon at Delhi and



Petersburg, those two Imperial Seats, which we may easily do, at whatever time it may be, or whatever place we be at: For finding, by the foregoing Problem, the present hour of the day in the said Cities, and supposing that Noon is their Dinner Time, we may readily determine how near it is to the time desired."<sup>1</sup>

The following illustrate the paradoxes:

"Par. 5. There is a certain Place on the Globe, of a considerable southern Latitude, that hath both the greatest and least Degree of Longitude.

Par. 6. There are three remarkable Places on the Globe, that differ both in Longitude and Latitude, and yet all lye under one and the same Meridian."<sup>2</sup>

The second part of the book contains much material of such a nature as to show how little was known about

foreign countries and foreign peoples by the geographers of that period. Two quotations will suffice to prove that the region west of the Mississippi was almost unknown. The first of these is a description of what is now Lower California.

"This is the most Northern Land of America, which is in any Degree settled upon or possess'd by the Spaniards. 'Tis a Sort of Peninsula, extending from Latitude 37 North, and

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1. Gordon: Geography Anatomized or The Geographical Grammar, 20th Ed., p. 17.  
2. Ibid, p. 35.





terminating with Cape Lucas at the Tropic. On the East it has the Californian Gulf, and on the west the Pacific Ocean. The chief Rivers are Carmel, Colorado, and Azul; which last called the Blue River falls into the Bottom of the Californian Gulf. The North Part is inhabited by the Teguas Nation; and the few settlements made by the Spaniards are all to the South."<sup>1</sup>

The following is apparently a description of the bison:

"Rarities.) According to Sanson's Account, the black Cattel here have small Horns and Hair like Wool, very long about the Manes. On their backs they have a great Bunch; their Forelegs are short, with a great Beard hanging from the Neck; and their Tails are long and hairy towards the End; so that they partake of the Deer, the Lion, and the Sheep."<sup>2</sup>

In this, as in the early American textbooks, the manners of the various peoples received a great deal of attention. Seldom was this topic omitted in the discussion of any country. Later books seem to have copied their descriptions of the Irish from the following:

"Manners) The Character of the Irish by Dr. Heylin is this, They are a people generally strong and nimble of

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1. Ibid, p. 347.

2. Ibid, p. 346.



Body, generous of Heart, careless of their Lives, patient in Cold and Hunger, implacable in Enmity, constant in Love, light of Belief, greedy of Glory. In a word, if they are bad, you shall no where find worse; if they be good, you can hardly meet with better."<sup>1</sup>

Because of the fact that many English geographies were used in America even after the Revolutionary war, some space has been devoted to this book by Gordon. It is typical of the geographies used during the eighteenth century. Our early American textbooks compare more favorably with this book by Gordon than one would expect. In fact, in some respects they are decidedly superior, although, on the whole, they are of a very similar nature.

The author of the first American school geography was Jedidiah Morse, minister of the Congregational Church in Charleston, Massachusetts. This book was published in 1784 in New Haven, Connecticut<sup>2</sup> and was entitled Geography Made Easy. For a number of years Morse's book was the only American geography textbook in use, but before the end of the century a few other geographies were published. It was a little 12 mo. leather-bound book dedicated "To the Young Masters and Misses Throughout The United States". The volume contained four hundred thirty-two pages as printed in the tenth edition in 1806.<sup>3</sup> It contained two

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1. Ibid, p. 215. .

2. Johnson: Old-Time Schs. and Sch. Books, pp. 318-319.

3. Morse: Geog. Made Easy, 10th Ed.





small maps, one of the world, and one of North America.

These maps were merely plain, uncolored outlines showing fairly accurately the main outlines of the larger land masses and tracing more or less accurately the courses of the principal rivers. The larger towns were also shown. The map of North America proves the author to have had very little knowledge of the courses of the rivers west of the Mississippi and only a general idea as to the shape of the Great Lakes and their connections with each other. The map shows no outlet from Lake Huron to Erie, the waters of the three upper lakes being discharged northward through a branch of the Churchill into Hudson Bay. There are no illustrations.

The early pages are occupied by material dealing with astronomy, mathematical geography, the use of the globes, latitude and longitude, the use of maps, and a short account of the discovery of America by Columbus. After a "General Description of America" the author discusses North America as a whole and then deals with each of its separate political divisions in turn. The material is arranged in paragraphs of a few sentences each, and the paragraph headings are such as the following; situation and boundaries; climate and diseases; face of the country, mountains, rivers, productions, population and character, history, towns, literature, education, bridges, canals, curiosities. In this and the



other early texts we find a great deal of attention devoted to various subjects under the heading of curiosities. The following description of a waterfall in Patucket River, near Providence, is typical:

"About 4 miles northeast of Providence, lies a small village, called Patucket, a place of some trade, and famous for lamprey eels. Through this village runs Patucket river, which empties into Seehonk river at this place. In this river is a beautiful fall of water, directly over which a bridge has been built, and which divides the commonwealth of Massachusetts from the state of Rhode-Island. The fall, in its whole length is upwards of fifty feet. The water passes through several chasms in a rock which runs diametrically across the bed of the stream, and serves as a dam to the water. Several mills have been erected upon these falls; and the spouts and channels which have been constructed to conduct the streams to their respective wheels, and the bridge, have taken very much from the beauty and grandeur of the scene, which would otherwise have been indescribably charming and romantick."<sup>1</sup>

Such descriptions of natural phenomena under the title of curiosities are common throughout the books of the early nineteenth century. The larger part of the material is, however, of a nature more nearly like that found in many

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1. Ibid, p. 152.





of our present-day geography texts. The following description of the trade and manufactures of the people of Vermont furnishes a fair sample of this type of material:

"The inhabitants of this state trade principally with Boston, New York, and Hartford, <sup>The articles of export are pot</sup> and pearl ashes chiefly; beef, horses, grain, some butter and cheese, lumber, etc. The inhabitants generally manufacture their own clothing in the family way.

Vast quantities of pot and pearl ashes are made in every part of the state. But one of the most important manufactures of this state is that of maple sugar."<sup>1</sup>

The paragraph immediately following the one just quoted is headed "Population, Religion and Character" and is as follows:

"In 1790, according to the census then taken, this state contained 85, 582 inhabitants, consisting chiefly of emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendants. For the number of inhabitants in 1800, see Table. Two townships in Orange country are settled principally by Scotch people. The body of the people are Congregationalists. The other denominations are Presbyterians, Baptists and Episcopalians.

The inhabitants of this state are an assemblage of people from various places, of different sentiments, manners

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1. Ibid, p. 116.





and habits. They have not lived together long enough to assimilate and form a general character. Assemble together, in imagination, a number of individuals of different nations, - consider them as living together amicably, and assisting each other through the toils and difficulties of life; and yet rigorously opposed in particular religions and political tenets; jealous of their rulers, and tenacious of their liberties; dispositions which originate naturally from the dread of experienced oppression and the habit of living under a free government -- and you have a pretty just idea of the character of the people of Vermont."<sup>1</sup>

After dealing with each of the states in turn Morse turns to the "Spanish Dominions In North-America" consisting of East and West Florida and Mexico. Next he discusses the Spanish speaking countries of South America and then "Portuguese America", the West Indies, Europe, Asia, Africa, and the newly discovered continent of New Holland, now known as Australia. The last nineteen pages are occupied by a chronological table giving the dates of important events in the world's history.

This book has been discussed somewhat more fully than will be done with those following. Space will not allow much more than mere mention and an occasional quotation. The

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1. Ibid, pp. 116-117.



gradual changes in the character of the books and the topics discussed will be taken up in connection with the tables presented on pages 60 and 70 to 71 , inclusive. The books will be considered in the order of their publication, and attention will be given to details not shown in the tables as well as to those which are tabulated.

Most of the early geographies were bound in leather, but by 1820 some were being bound with card board and wood, covered with marbled paper. Most of them were 12 mo. but some were as small as 32 mo. The earliest books usually contained one or two uncolored maps, but beginning shortly after 1820 the authors of the geography texts inaugurated the custom of publishing separate atlases with each volume. Only a comparatively few volumes were published previous to the Civil War period without the accompanying atlas. At that time, however, the old 12 mo. book and the separate atlas were being displaced by the big, flat volume with which we are all familiar and which contains its own maps.

Morse's earliest rival was Nathaniel Dwight. Dwight published a Geography of the World by Way of Question and Answer in 1795. It was made up entirely of questions and answers and was designed to be "more easily understood by children, than any of the small geographies which have been heretofore designed for them".<sup>1</sup> The following material

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1. Dwight: Geog. of the World, 1810, See Preface.





dealing with the county of Wales is typical of the organization:

"Q. What are the productions of Wales?

A. The vegetable productions are like those of England, and the animals differ only in size from those of England; those of Wales being smaller and less valuable.

Q. What number of inhabitants is there in Wales?

A. There are about three hundred thousand.

Q. What are the customs and manners of the Welch?

A. They are a jealous people, but easily pacified, and very sincere in their friendships. They are fond of tracing back their pedigrees, and are very much attached to the manners of their forefathers. Some of the Welch gentlemen, however are fond of imitating the English mode of living."<sup>1</sup>

A New System Of Modern Geography, 1810, by Elijah Parish, another New England minister, was very similar in content to Morse's book. It dealt with practically the same topics, contained the same two maps,<sup>2</sup> and was arranged similarly with reference to paragraphing and paragraph headings. Williets' Compendious System Of Geography, published in 1819, introduced nothing new except a short discussion of map drawing. It contained no maps. There was one important change in connection with this geography, though not in the book itself? A separate atlas containing maps to be used in connection with

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1. Ibid, p. 35.

2. A little book by Benjamin Workman entitled Elements of Geography, the twelfth edition of which was published in 1807, contained seven small, uncolored maps. They are rather in-



the text was published at the same time, and this was one of a long list of atlases published with the textbooks up to the time following the Civil War. Few of these atlases seem to be in existence at present.

A textbook entitled A New System Of Geography, Ancient and Modern, For the Use Of Schools<sup>1</sup> by Jedidiah Morse and Sidney Edwards Morse was very popular during the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The twenty-third edition was published in 1822. This book was different from those preceding in that it contained a twenty-seven page discussion of "Ancient Geography", a subject common to the textbooks until after the Civil War. Not all texts gave space to this particular subject, however, as can be readily seen by reference to the tables mentioned above. The material included was a study of what would now be called the geography and history of Palestine, Egypt, Carthage, and the Grecian and Roman States.

Cummings'<sup>2</sup> textbook, first published in 1814, made no change of importance except that it gave slightly more space to the commercial phase of the subject. A book by Willets<sup>3</sup> designed especially for elementary school use contains many questions based on the maps in the atlas accompanying the textbook. The tenth edition of this book was published in 1823.

A short summary of the contents of the textbooks up to

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1. Morse & Morse: New Syst. of Geog. Anc. and Mod. 23rd Ed.

2. Cummings: An Introduct. To Anc. and Mod. Geog.

3. Willets: Easy Gram. Of Geog.





1824 by means of Table I on page 60 will be of value at this point. The first six books listed in the table have been discussed. Of the six all devoted space to descriptive geography, in which political units are dealt with in turn; to physical geography in which there is an introductory or summary discussion of land and water forms, climate, and soil, without reference to any particular political division; and to mathematical geography, in which such subjects as latitude and longitude, the zones, declination of the earth's axis, and change of seasons are discussed. Morse and Morse, and Willets in his more elementary text, give space to ancient geography. The reader may question the separation of mathematical geography and astronomy. The circumstances justify this, however. Each of these six books devotes a number of pages to a discussion of astronomy with practically no reference to its relation to geography. In such cases the material was listed under the head of astronomy. Three of the six take up the question of map making as a separate topic, and Morse devotes three pages to a separate discussion of the various races of human kind. Morse and Parish each included maps of the world and of North America in their books, and the other four have separate atlases. None of the six make use of illustrations.

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TABLE I.

## CONTENTS OF VARIOUS GEOGRAPHY TEXTBOOKS, 1806-1869

No.	TextDate of pub.	No. of pages	Des- cript.	Phy.	Math.	Number of pages devoted to:					Gov- ern- ment	Maps	Illus.
						Geog.	anc.	astr.	Races	Relig- ion.	State of Civil.		
1	1806	432	371	1	11	0	0	6	5-1/2	3	0	0	none
2	1810	370	346	3	4	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	none
3	1819	466	359	2	29	0	0	21	7-1/2	0	0	02	none
4	1822	373	315	2	7	27	0	5	0	0	0	0	none
5	1823	215	118	2	24	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	none
6	1823	340	130	24	19	54	0	6	14	0	0	02	none
7	1824	294	159	4	7-1/2	24	0	3	5	1/2	1/2	1/2	none
8	1830	320	260	22	7	0	0	2	0	2	3-1/2	2	numerous
9	1834	288	208	7	13	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	numerous
10	1839	264	215	20	13	0	0	0	0	1/2	1/8	1	numerous
11	1843	178	121	8	3	0	0	14	0	3	3	4	some
12	1845	350	274	25	23	0	0	6	6	0	0	3-1/2	numerous
13	1861	356	232	7	19	31	0	0	0	2-1/2	2	3	numerous
14	1866	326	248	6	19	6	0	7	7	1	1/2	1	some
15	1865-9	96	75	2	5	0	0	0	0	1/4	0	1/2	some
16	1869	336	261	3	16	0	0	0	0	1-1/2	2	6	numerous

For textbooks corresponding to text numbers see bibliography.

The writer found the names listed under Numbers 91 to 97 in lists of authors of Geography textbooks, but the titles were not listed.



With the publication of Worcester's Elements of Geography, Ancient and Modern, stereotype edition, in 1824 four new subjects began to receive separate treatment in the introductory portion of the textbooks. Worcester devotes one half of a page to each of the following: races of the world, the different religions of the world, the different forms of government, the state of civilization or society in different parts of the world. The following description of the different races is typical of what is to be found dealing with that subject in practically all of the geographies from that date until after 1860.

"The human species, though descended from one common origin, exhibit a great diversity of complexion, form, character, and improvement. The most favorable state of society is found in the temperate zones; here civilization most prevails; and the inhabitants are most distinguished for industry, enterprise, intelligence, and personal beauty. In the frigid zone the stature of man does not usually exceed four feet.

Complexion. The human species, with regard to complexion, are divided into two great classes, one white, and the other black. These two divisions include six subdivisions or races; the first comprising the white, the tawny and the copper-coloured; the second the black, the blackish, and the dark brown.

1. The White, or Caucasian Race, includes nearly all the Europeans, except the Laplanders; the Circassians,





Georgians, Arabians, Turks, Persians, and Hindoos.

2. The Tawny, or Olive, or Mongolian Race, includes the other inhabitants of the Eastern and Southeastern parts of Asia, except the Malays; and also the Laplanders in Europe."<sup>1</sup>

He continues in the same manner, naming the various peoples which belong in the race groups mentioned.

Worcester devotes thirty-seven pages to what he calls "Tabular Views". This material consists of tables dealing with very many topics, from the areas in square miles of continents and political divisions to the number of volumes in the principal libraries of the world. Heights of mountain peaks, population of cities, exports and imports of various countries, amounts of public debts, numbers of ships in navies, proportion of births, deaths, and marriages to number of inhabitants, and many similar topics are included. There is also a list of questions based on these tables. Twenty-four pages are devoted to ancient geography, and many pages are devoted to questions based on the maps in the accompanying atlas.

The Malte-Brun School Geography by Griswold Goodrich, 1830, was "chiefly derived from Malte-Brun"<sup>2</sup>, the great French geographer. This book introduces another innovation. It contains many small engravings of animals, people, and objects

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1. Worcester, Elements of Geography, Ancient and Modern, Stereotype Ed. pp. 17-18.

2. Goodrich: A Syst. of School Geog. title page.



discussed in the text. Most of these are stiff and un-life-like and, according to present standards, would be considered crude, but never-the-less they are a decided improvement over the utter absence of any illustrations. Olney's Practical System of Modern Geography was another popular work as is shown by the fact that the seventeenth edition was published in 1834, just six years after the publication of the first edition. This little book was made up partly of descriptive and partly of question and answer material. It contained long lists of map questions and numerous illustrations. The inadequate way in which these early textbooks dealt with the geography of a country or region is shown by the following treatment of Wales.

#### "Wales

How is Wales bounded?

---

Wales is a mountainous country, generally resembling England in climate, soil and productions.

Wales was conquered and united to England in 1283, by Edward I.

The eldest son of the King of England is styled Prince of Wales.

Character.- The Welch are the descendants of the ancient Britons. They are a passionate, but honest, brave and hospitable people.

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In what direction from us is Wales? What Channel S. of Wales? What Channel between Wales and Ireland? What Island near the northern part of Wales, distinguished for its mines of copper? What 2 Towns in Wales?"<sup>1</sup>

The Encyclopaedia Of Geography by Thomas F. Smiley was published in Cincinnati in 1839. Its organization was not different from that of the earlier textbooks. The book did not treat map making as a separate subject. Goodrich and Olney had also omitted this once popular subject, and it fails to reappear in any of the later books. The illustrations are numerous but show little improvement in quality. Smiley publishes a separate atlas as was done by his predecessors for many years. The next volume listed in the tables shows a change in this respect. This book is Mitchell's Easy Introduction To the Study of Geography, published in 1843. The idea of our present big, flat volume seems to have occurred to Mitchell. This primary geography is small, measuring five by six inches, but the significant thing is that it lacks only one inch of being as wide as it is high. This extra width provides ample space for fourteen small, colored maps, much like those we have today. They show a fairly accurate knowledge of the physical features of the various continents.

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1. Olney, A Pract. Syst. Of Mod. Geog. 17th Ed., p.180.





Few cities are shown. Another feature of this little book is the introduction of numbered paragraphs without the topic headings so familiar in the earlier books, especially before 1830. The material is simple and readable but is not always accurate.

"1. South America, the southern division of the Western Continent, is an extensive Peninsula, united to North America by the Isthmus of Darien.

2. It is famous for its large rivers, high mountains, and the abundance of its gold, silver, and diamonds.

3. The Andes is the most extensive range of mountains in South America. Sorato is the highest peak of the Andes. Cotopaxi is the most elevated volcano on the globe.

4. The Amazon, La Plata, Orinoco, and St. Francisco, are the chief rivers of this region. The Amazon is, next to the Mississippi, the largest river in the world, and is navigable for three thousand miles."<sup>1</sup>

The time had not yet arrived when all geographers were ready to accept the big flat volume and include the maps in the textbook. In fact very few were ready to do so. Woodbridge's elementary textbook, the second edition of which was published in 1845, was of the old type with the separate atlas. However, this book has a number of interesting and progressive features. The first five pages are devoted to

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1. Mitchell: An Easy Introduct. To the Study of Geog., p.78.



an explanation of what a map really is. He compares pictures and maps or plans, beginning with a room. He next compares a picture of a town with a map of the same and finally explains what is meant by the map of a small island.<sup>1</sup> Towns, schools, and roads are all shown on the map, and yet it is a very simple one. There are no real maps in the book, but outlines of the different continents have been drawn in order to present easy methods of map drawing. The outlines of North and South America have been drawn in the familiar triangles and that of Africa in an egg-shaped oval. A third interesting feature of the book also deserves mention. Profiles or cross sections of the various continents and countries have been included. This represents a very considerable advance and corresponds with the emphasis placed by Woodbridge on the interpretation of maps.

Smith's Geography Of The Productive System, published in 1861, is also of the old type with the separate atlas. Smith uses the numbered paragraphs and supplies more details in his descriptions than do the earlier writers. His book also contains fewer inaccuracies than the books of the first half of the century. The following description of England is typical:

"1. England, anciently called Albion, is the largest and most populous division of Great Britain. It has an

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1. Woodbridge: Mod. Sch. Geog. , p. XI.





agreeable variety of hills and plains, with no very high mountains, and its scenery is exceedingly beautiful.

2. The soil is fertile and under a high state of cultivation, producing wheat, barley, rye, oats, beans, peas, etc. The horses, cattle, and various kinds of sheep of England are much celebrated.

3. The climate, though from its situation inclined to moisture and chilliness, is healthy and less subject to the disagreeable extremes of heat and cold than other places in the same latitude on the continent.

4. The mineral productions of England are numerous and valuable, such as coal, copper, tin, iron, silver, zinc, and lead. England is the most commercial country on the globe and has from its numerous canals an extensive inland navigation. It is also much famed for the extent and variety of its manufactures."<sup>1</sup>

The author then devotes from three lines to half a page to each of the following cities: London, Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, Bristol, Leeds, Bath, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Chatham.

This book is intended for academies as well as for grammar schools but even the difference in purpose does not account for the whole difference in the number of details given. It is a decided improvement over earlier works. The

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1. Smith: Geog. Of the Productive Syst., p. 219.



one hundred fifth edition of Olney's book, published in 1866, shows little improvement, but Mitchell's A System of Modern Geography published in 1869 is similar to Smith's book.

Of the books included in the table there remains to be mentioned one volume, This is Cornell's Intermediate Geography. This book was first published in 1855, but the date of publication of the edition examined by the writer was not given. The date must have been between 1865 and 1869 because in a list of the Presidents of the United States Andrew Johnson's administration is dated 1865---, and that ends the list.

The book is the familiar large, thin, flat volume which we immediately recognize as a geography. It contains thirty-seven maps of various sorts. They vary in size of the area represented from a city and its immediate vicinity to the whole world. The maps are colored and are reasonably accurate. The illustrations are fairly numerous and are not so stiff as were those of the earlier period.

Another book of a slightly earlier period deserves mention, although it has not been included in the tables. This book by Van Waters is composed almost entirely of short rhymes. A sound is defined thus:

"A Strait so shallow that its depth is found,  
By lead or anchor, oft is called a sound."<sup>1</sup>

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1. Van Waters: Poetical Geography, p. 9.





The following description of the state of Missouri is also typical.

"And Jefferson City on a high bluff smiles,  
Up the Missouri tide twice sixty miles,  
On the same tide, just twenty from its mouth,  
St. Charles is on the north bank, not on the south,  
And Independence, west of all hath laid her,  
From whence for Santa Fe, leaves many a trader.  
St. Louis, on the Mississippi's seem,  
Down from Missouri's mouth miles seventeen,  
From New Orleans, twelve hundred up the tide,  
Missouri's largest town, Missouri's pride.  
And from St. Louis, seventy miles southwest,  
Potosi lives, known for her lead the best."<sup>1</sup>

70 71  
Pages ~~113~~ to ~~116~~, ~~inclusive~~, are devoted to the  
tabulation of the topics discussed by various authors under  
descriptive geography. The same sixteen textbooks are used  
in this study as in the previous one. The material selected  
from each of the textbooks for the purpose of making this  
study was the descriptive material used in the discussion of  
the United States as a whole and also of the six New England  
states. This material was carefully analyzed and the main  
topic discussed in each paragraph or group of paragraphs  
selected. In this way a list of the topics discussed in each

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1. Ibid, p. 26.





of the fifteen selections was compiled. A composite list was then made, containing all of the topics discussed in any one of the fifteen selections, and these were arranged as in Table II. The crosses indicate that the topic named in the left-hand column in the position corresponding to that of the cross was discussed by the author whose number is at the top of the column in which the cross is located. If a particular topic has not been discussed by an author the appropriate space is left blank. For instance, Worcester in his Elements of Geography, Ancient and Modern devotes some attention to the situation and extent of the country, but he says nothing about the coastline and harbors. Of course there is much which such a table cannot show. As an illustration the book by Goodrich may be mentioned. Although no more topics receive attention than in the earlier books many more details are given, and the descriptions are of an easy, flowing type which are entirely different from the earlier, scrappy variety.

An examination of the table shows a definite trend or tendency. One outstanding fact to be noted is that fewer topics are included in the later textbooks. This tendency to discuss fewer items but to give more detailed information about each of those discussed has already been mentioned in connection with some of the later books, such as those of Smith and Mitchell. Another peculiar feature is the inclusion of internal improvements in geography. The term is familiar



TABLE II

TOPICS DISCUSSED IN THE DESCRIPTIVE GEOGRAPHY OF THE UNITED STATES BY  
VARIOUS AUTHORS, 1806-1869.

Topics	Text No. and Date of Pub.															
	1 '06	2 '10	3 '19	4 '22	5 '23	6 '23	7 '24	8 '30	9 '34	10 '39	11 '43	12 '45	13 '61	14 '66	15 '67	16 '69
situation	+	+		+			+			+		+	+		+	+
extent							+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+
shape				+												
boundaries	+	+	+		+			+	+						+	
civil divisions		+	+	+	+	+	+				+					+
natural "				+				+				+		+	+	
counties			+			+										
importance									+				+	+		
surface	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
mountains	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+			+	+	+	+	+
coastline				+	+					+		+	+			+
harbors	+			+								+				
capcs	+		+			+						+				
bays	+	+	+	+	+	+	+									
islands	+	+	+	+	+	+	+									
peninsulas				+												
drainage								+				+		+		+
rivers	+	+	+	+	+	+	+			+		+		+		+
lakes	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+		+				
climate	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
soil	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
agricultural products	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
industries						+	+					+		+	+	
commerce	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+
banks		+	+		+	+										
manufactures	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
minerals		+	+	+			+			+	+	+		+		+
mineral waters		+	+	+			+				+	+		+		
fishing				+				+		+	+	+	+	+		
plants										+		+				
forests								+		+		+				
animals	+									+		+				
birds	+									+						
reptiles	+															
fish	+											+				
character of																
people	+	+	+					+	+	+	+					+
nationality of																
people			+							+		+	+	+		
population	+	+		+			+			+	+	+		+		+
government	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
presidents									+				+		+	
army	+	+	+		+					+						
navy	+	+	+							+						

# 1907

RECEIPTS OF THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY, FOR THE YEAR 1907.

RECEIPTS OF THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, BUREAU OF PLANT INDUSTRY, FOR THE YEAR 1907.														TOTAL	
NO.	DATE	BY WHOM RECEIVED	FOR WHAT PURPOSE	AMOUNT	REMARKS	NO.	DATE	BY WHOM RECEIVED	FOR WHAT PURPOSE	AMOUNT	REMARKS	NO.	DATE	BY WHOM RECEIVED	FOR WHAT PURPOSE
1	1907					2	1907					3	1907		
4	1907					5	1907					6	1907		
7	1907					8	1907					9	1907		
10	1907					11	1907					12	1907		
13	1907					14	1907					15	1907		
16	1907					17	1907					18	1907		
19	1907					20	1907					21	1907		
22	1907					23	1907					24	1907		
25	1907					26	1907					27	1907		
28	1907					29	1907					30	1907		
31	1907					32	1907					33	1907		
34	1907					35	1907					36	1907		
37	1907					38	1907					39	1907		
40	1907					41	1907					42	1907		
43	1907					44	1907					45	1907		
46	1907					47	1907					48	1907		
49	1907					50	1907					51	1907		
52	1907					53	1907					54	1907		
55	1907					56	1907					57	1907		
58	1907					59	1907					60	1907		
61	1907					62	1907					63	1907		
64	1907					65	1907					66	1907		
67	1907					68	1907					69	1907		
70	1907					71	1907					72	1907		
73	1907					74	1907					75	1907		
76	1907					77	1907					78	1907		
79	1907					80	1907					81	1907		
82	1907					83	1907					84	1907		
85	1907					86	1907					87	1907		
88	1907					89	1907					90	1907		
91	1907					92	1907					93	1907		
94	1907					95	1907					96	1907		
97	1907					98	1907					99	1907		
100	1907					101	1907					102	1907		
103	1907					104	1907					105	1907		
106	1907					107	1907					108	1907		
109	1907					110	1907					111	1907		
112	1907					113	1907					114	1907		
115	1907					116	1907					117	1907		
118	1907					119	1907					120	1907		
121	1907					122	1907					123	1907		
124	1907					125	1907					126	1907		
127	1907					128	1907					129	1907		
130	1907					131	1907					132	1907		
133	1907					134	1907					135	1907		
136	1907					137	1907					138	1907		
139	1907					140	1907					141	1907		
142	1907					143	1907					144	1907		
145	1907					146	1907					147	1907		
148	1907					149	1907					150	1907		
151	1907					152	1907					153	1907		
154	1907					155	1907					156	1907		
157	1907					158	1907					159	1907		
160	1907					161	1907					162	1907		
163	1907					164	1907					165	1907		
166	1907					167	1907					168	1907		
169	1907					170	1907					171	1907		
172	1907					173	1907					174	1907		
175	1907					176	1907					177	1907		
178	1907					179	1907					180	1907		
181	1907					182	1907					183	1907		
184	1907					185	1907					186	1907		
187	1907					188	1907					189	1907		
190	1907					191	1907					192	1907		
193	1907					194	1907					195	1907		
196	1907					197	1907					198	1907		
199	1907					200	1907					201	1907		
202	1907					203	1907					204	1907		
205	1907					206	1907					207	1907		
208	1907					209	1907					210	1907		
211	1907					212	1907					213	1907		
214	1907					215	1907					216	1907		
217	1907					218	1907					219	1907		
220	1907					221	1907					222	1907		
223	1907					224	1907					225	1907		
226	1907					227	1907					228	1907		
229	1907					230	1907					231	1907		
232	1907					233	1907					234	1907		
235	1907					236	1907					237	1907		
238	1907					239	1907					240	1907		
241	1907					242	1907					243	1907		
244	1907					245	1907					246	1907		
247	1907					248	1907					249	1907		
250	1907					251	1907					252	1907		
253	1907					254	1907					255	1907		
256	1907					257	1907					258	1907		
259	1907					260	1907					261	1907		
262	1907					263	1907					264	1907		
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Topics	Text No. and Date of Pub.															
	1 '06	2 '10	3 '19	4 '22	5 '23	6 '23	7 '24	8 '30	9 '34	10 '39	11 '43	12 '45	13 '61	14 '66	15 '67	16 '69
revenue	+		+													
debt	+	+	+		+											
Constitution	+	+														
practice of law		+														
Bank of U.S.	+															
state prisons		+	+													
mint	+	+														
post-office		+														
history	+	+		+			+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+
settlements				+					+							
internal im- provements									+							
bridges	+	+		+												
canals	+	+	+	+	+		+	+			+	+		+		
turnpikes		+				+										
lighthouses		+														
roads	+			+												
railroads											+	+	+			
steamboats											+	+				
trade routes								+		+	+	+				+
towns	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
education	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+
literature	+	+	+													
schools	+	+			+						+		+			
colleges					+			+	+		+		+			
academies	+															
societies	+	+														
curiosities	+	+	+	+			+	+								
public institu- tions								+								
religion	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+		+	+		+

For textbooks corresponding to text numbers see bibliography, p. 136.



enough in our present-day history texts but not in our geographies. Just how can we account for the attention given to canals, turnpikes, bridges, steamboats and railroads? Bridges and canals were favorites with the very early writers; then turnpikes, railroads and steamboats became popular, and after 1822 bridges have little place in the discussion of internal improvements. Shortly after this date turnpikes and roads lose their place, but canals continue a strong favorite on down to 1860. A perusal of the pages of any good American History dealing with the first half of the nineteenth century will give the answer. Roads, bridges, and canals had not received very serious consideration in the eighteenth century but early in the nineteenth they became the subject of much legislation in addition to the advantage of ranking high as a topic for discussion. A big bridge was something unusual and inspired not a little awe, as is shown by some of the discussions in the works of Morse and Parish. Of course canals gained in importance after the completion of the Erie Canal in 1825. Turnpikes leading into the West held a strong place in the discussions of the day, and after 1830 the railroad became increasingly important. In brief, there was something here which people needed to know in order to keep abreast of the times. There was no place for it in any other subject of the curriculum; so it found its way into the geographies. But why was such material not included in history rather than in





geography? History did not win its place in the curriculum until a later date. In fact, we find that the history which was taught early in the nineteenth century was presented in connection with geography. Shortly after 1840 a number of Massachusetts towns began to introduce history as a subject in the curriculum.<sup>1</sup> This seems to have been the first real beginning made toward including the subject in the curriculum.

Many other topics with which we are familiar in our present-day history texts are also included in the early geographies. Among these are the Constitution, the United States Bank, public debt, the army and navy, the United States Mint, revenue and expenditures, the post-office, state prisons, and practice of the law. Many of the geographies also contained an account of the history of the country from the discovery of America in 1492 through the period of settlement and the Revolutionary War. Less of this historical material is found in the geography texts published from 1860 to 1870. Smiley's book, published in 1839 contained a great deal of such material, but it seems to have been transferred to the history textbooks between that date and 1860.

If one looks through the table with the terms situation, extent, and boundaries in mind, he will make another interesting discovery. The early geographies seldom failed to say something about the boundaries of a political unit, and if the

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1. Hatfield: Hist. of the Elem. Sch. Curric. In Mass., pp. 31-33.





boundaries were not made the principal topic of one or two paragraphs, then the term situation was substituted. Quite often location was substituted for the more familiar terms. About 1830 the word extent became common as a paragraph heading, and the other terms appeared less often. After 1830 the extent of the country was a popular topic with the geographies. This change must have been due to a growing realization of the size or extent of the country. The westward movement was on in full force, and the people were just beginning to realize that this great western country was a very important part of the United States. They were learning its bigness and to be proud of the fact that it was so big.

Curiosities were popular early in the century but fell into disuse about 1830, crowded out by more valuable subjects. One quotation dealing with the subject has already been given from Morse. A second from Parish is of a slightly different nature.

"Curiosities.- On the bank of the Ohio, 22 miles below the mouth of the Wabash, is a stupendous cave. The entrance is 90 feet wide, the top arched, 45 feet in height. The cave is 200 feet long, 40 feet high. The walls are smooth, the bottom level, excepting the sides, which are raised in steps like the seats in a gallery. An orifice, through the roof of this cave, as large as a chimney, leads to another cavern as large as the lower. At Big Bone Lick, 32 miles



below the Great Miami, bones of an enormous size have been recently dug up. Among these were 2 horns, 16 feet long, 18 inches in circumference, weighing 150 pounds each; also grinders, weighing from 3 to 10 and a half pounds each. The whole weighed about five tons."<sup>1</sup>

A peculiar feature of the early texts is the fact that not one of the writers seems to have made any attempt to explain the formation of the strange caverns which they described or to test the truth of some of the odd stories which they quoted. Neither was any attempt made to show the relation between the climate of a region and its products or its surface and its climate. There were pages and pages of description but no attempt to reason.

Much space was devoted by the early writers to the character of the various peoples. Dwight gives us an interesting description of the Irish:

"Q. What are the characteristics of the Irish?

A. They are impatient of injuries, implacable in their resentments and vehement in all their affections. They are of quick apprehension; courteous to strangers and patient of fatigue. The higher classes and some of the lower, are well educated and as respectable as their neighbors in like circumstances."<sup>2</sup>

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1. Parish: A New System of Modern Geography, p. 102.

2. Dwight: A Short but Comprehensive Syst. of the Geog. of the World, p. 37.







Toward the middle of the century this topic also declined in importance. Other topics, such as those dealing with commercial and physical geography, with education and literature were demanding the space, and with increasing travel people were becoming better acquainted with the characteristics of other peoples. Such topics as religion, education, and literature were retained in the textbooks even through the Civil War period. A limited amount of history also remained as did the many items of physical and commercial geography. The terms bay, cape, isthmus, peninsula, and island are not quite so numerous in the later books, but this is merely because they appear more often in the map questions and so are left out of the descriptive material to a certain extent. At the close of the period terms dealing with commercial geography are the most numerous and receive the most attention. There are indications that the subject is beginning to feel the influence of business and commerce and to become practical.

The books discussed were by no means all those in use in the United States before the Civil War. In 1833 books by the following authors were in use in New York State: Woodbridge, Olney, Willets, Morse, Cummings, Goodrich, Clark, Peter Parley, Spafford, Worcester, and Hilliard.<sup>1</sup> An anonymous writer in American Annals of Education in 1832 says

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1. Flagg: New York Ann. Report of the Supt. of Com. Schools, 1833, pp. 68-73.



that books by the following were in use in the United States in 1832: Morse, Cummings, Worcester, Woodbridge, Willard, Goodrich, Malte-Brun, Willets, Olney, Dwight, Worcester, Drury, Davie, Fowle, Smiley, Hall, Blake, Ingraham, Keith, Adams, Smith, Butler, Field, Peter Parley, Hart, and Hale.<sup>1</sup>

Not all of these books were in great demand at any one time, but there were several favorites at any given time throughout the entire period. The favorite of one decade would gradually decline in popularity and be displaced by a newer book. Books cost considerable money, however, and money was not plentiful during those years. As a result there was great complaint about the lack of uniformity of textbooks. Often the teachers were compelled to hear several recitations in geography, the pupils using one book comprising one class and those using another book a second class. The following account by the county superintendent of Cayuga County, New York gives some insight into the extent of the difficulty.

"The whole number studying geography in all the schools, was 1507. Average number in each school, about 7; the winter and summer terms vary but little. The greatest drawback on the improvement in this branch is the diversity of books, generally reciting, particularly in summer schools,

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1. Anon. Sch.-Bks. in the United States in Amer. Annals of Ed. Vol. II, 1832, p. 375. For a more complete list of textbooks in use between 1776 and 1860 see appendix.





separately. The schools where they were well classed were very rare. There is much room for improvement. The teachers are not familiar with the practice of exercising the classes on the black-board, which, undoubtedly is a very advantageous mode of impressing on the memory the boundaries of countries, the situation of places, &c. However, in the main, the schools were generally making pretty good improvement."<sup>1</sup>

Such complaints were very common in the educational journals of the first half of the nineteenth century, but there is no account of any particular effort having been made to relieve the situation.

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1. Young: N.Y. Ann. Rep't. of the Supt. of Com.Sch., 1843., p.102.





CHAPTER V

METHODS AND DEVICES USED IN TEACHING GEOGRAPHY, 1776-1860.

In two articles in The Elementary School Teacher during the years of 1909 and 1910 Mr. C. A. Phillips discusses the methods used in teaching geography from the period just preceding 1800 up to the time his article was written. He says of the procedure before 1800 that it was unorganized and unscientific. According to Mr. Phillips' view physiography is the important factor underlying the geography of the second period, and industrial and economic geography are characteristic of the third or recent period.<sup>1</sup> The writer will agree with Mr. Phillips that in general he has characterized these periods correctly but feels that no definite limit to the periods mentioned can be fixed. It is impossible to fix any such limit. The change in the content of the geography taught during the last century has been so gradual that we cannot specify any date and say that before that date one type of subject matter was characteristic and after it another type of subject matter was characteristic. The types of subject matter taught and the methods of teaching overlap and intertwine to such an extent that all of the last century and up to the present time may be considered as one continuous period during which a slow but

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1. Phillips: The Development of Methods in Teaching Modern Elementary Geography. In the Elem. Sch. Teach. Vol. 10, p.427.

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constant change was ever going forward.

In this chapter it is the purpose of the writer to stress especially the methods of presenting the material rather than the type of material presented. An effort will be made to trace the changes in the methods of presenting this material and to see what progress, if any, is made between 1776 and 1860. Incidentally the content of the material taught must be given attention in-so-far as it affects the method of presentation.

Phillips characterized the early geography teaching well when he said that it was unorganized and unscientific. One is not justified, however, in limiting this period of lack of organization and scientific procedure to the years before 1800. According to the testimony of both Webster<sup>1</sup> and Oliver<sup>2</sup> the subject was not commonly taught before that date. The latter says that the books were "very defective and mostly without maps". Neither mentions the exact method of presenting the material, whether it was memorized or merely read. Johnson<sup>3</sup> states that textbooks were first used as readers but cites no authority for the statement. We can accept this statement, however, in view of the fact that we have evidence to prove that such was the case when William B. Fowle was

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1. Barnard: Schools As They Were Sixty Years Ago. In Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Ed., Vol. XXVI, 1876, pp. 195-196. Quotes from letter written by Noah Webster in 1840.
  2. Oliver: How I was Educated from Six to Fourteen. In Papers Read Before Amer. Instit. of Instruct., July 26, 1871, p. 58.
  3. Johnson: Old-Time Sch's and Sch. Books, p. 318.





in school. Fowle was born in 1795 and was certainly in school during the early years of the nineteenth century. Of geography teaching at that time he says,

"While I was in school, geography was first introduced as a regular exercise, and on the whole, the method of instruction was more rational than that which has since prevailed, although its result was very similar. The chief book used was an abridgement of Dr. Moreau's Universal Geography, but it was read only, and not committed to memory. It was never explained to the pupils, and being quite unintelligible, was, of course, very uninteresting. The only portion that was tolerable, was a description of the animals of this country; and this was to the desert a sort of oasis, which we visited, in the course of our reading, only about once a year. The book contained one or two maps, but we were never required to examine them, and, in most cases, they were soon torn out and thrown away as the most useless things in the world. To beguile the tedious hours of idleness, which then, as now, constituted the larger part of school time, such of us as retained the maps were accustomed to play "hunt for places" on them. This was a standing game for years, and to this I am indebted for all the knowledge of geography that I brought away from school, although whenever I was detected in this forbidden exercise I was severely punished."<sup>1</sup>

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1. Fowle: The Best Method of Teaching Geography. In Lect. Delivered Before the Amer. Instit. of Instruct., Aug. 1845, pp. 226-227.



In 1852 in an article in The Common School Journal the same writer gives us evidence to show that memorizing was also a part of the method of procedure.

"When we were at school, this branch of study was not introduced into the public schools of Boston. The Astronomical and Geographical Catechism of Caleb Bingham was committed to memory but never explained. This was a thin pamphlet, and we learned it in a few weeks, but it was the textbook for several years, and we said it through, hundreds of times, without looking at map or globe, and without seeing any illustration or explanation.

We then used the Abridgement of Morse's Geography as a reading book. No lessons were studied and no maps examined. The book contained a map of the Hemispheres, and, we believe, one of the United States, but they were never used, and generally torn out as incumbrances. One of our amusements was to play hunt places on these maps, one boy putting out a name for the other to find. This was forbidden by the teacher, but it was frequently attempted, and many is the blow we received for playing this game, although the only knowledge we ever got of geography at school was obtained in this way. We did not understand the reading, and yet we read the book through many times during our school career."<sup>1</sup>

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1. Fowle: Geography. In The Com. Sch. Jour., Vol. 14, 1852, pp. 324-326.

the first of these is the fact that the  
 the second is the fact that the

the third is the fact that the

the fourth is the fact that the

the fifth is the fact that the

the sixth is the fact that the

the seventh is the fact that the

the eighth is the fact that the

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To what extent is one justified in assuming that the two quotations describe the methods of teaching during the two decades immediately preceding 1800 as well as during the years immediately following? Fowle was not in school from 1780 to 1800, because he was not born until 1795; so we cannot say with certainty that he has described the method of presenting geographical material before 1800. On the other hand, methods of teaching change very <sup>slow</sup> ~~slowly~~, and it is highly improbable that there was any material difference in procedure in 1790 and 1810. It will be shown later that memorizing was becoming more popular and that mere reading was decreasing in popularity. Of course it is possible that the method of memorizing was in vogue before 1800 and that the method given most attention by Fowle displaced it only to be displaced again by memorizing, but this is highly improbable. We cannot, however, be absolutely certain as to the method pursued before 1800.

The second quotation from Fowle is open to several interpretations. Just what is meant by the first sentence in the quotation is difficult to decide. He says that this branch of study was not introduced into the public schools of Boston when he was at school, and then he proceeds to tell how it was taught. It is possible that Fowle did not receive his education in the public schools, or it may be that he did not include the material from Bingham's pamphlet





under the term geography. This reference to memorizing shows that it was becoming popular. It seems to have been used only with the question and answer material, however, and of course such material was not suitable for mere reading. The fact that question and answer material was published, however, shows that there was a demand for something which could simply be memorized.

Bingham's Catechism was not the only book consisting of question and answer material after 1795. During that year there was published a book by Nathaniel Dwight, entitled A Short But Comprehensive System of the Geography of the World, By Way of Question and Answer. The preface to the first edition of this book, as reproduced in the edition of 1802, gives us some insight into Dwight's views on the teaching of geography. He advances two objections to the geographies then in use. One objection was that they were too expensive and the second that they were not of such a type as to be easily comprehended by small children. He feels that he has solved the problems as shown by the following:

"I think that both the objections are obviated in this treatise. The expense of this book is so small that it may be easily afforded, and the form of a catechism admits of its being much more comprehensive and more easily understood by children than any of the small geographies which have been heretofore designed for them. It will enable them use-

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fully to improve many hours of their early years, which for want of something of this kind, are entirely lost: ....."<sup>1</sup>

Although he states that his purpose in organizing his book in the form of a catechism is to make it more easily understood, a second reason seems to be touched upon in the last sentence of the quotation. How were these children "usefully to improve many hours of their early years", by merely reading over and over a list of questions with the answers printed below them? This does not appear to be the most reasonable interpretation. He seems to have intended that the children should memorize the answers to the questions.

It was said earlier in the chapter that an effort would be made to show that memorizing was increasing in popularity. A quotation from Willets' more elementary textbook published in 1823, serves the purpose admirably. Willets' book was based on the plan used by Goldsmith, an English geography, and Willets frankly quotes from Goldsmith as to the proper method of using the book:

"The proper mode of using this little book to advantage, will, it is apprehended, be to let the pupil commit the whole of the facts to memory, at the rate, perhaps of one, two or three a day, according to his age and capacity; taking care at the end of each section to make him repeat the whole of what he has before learnt."<sup>2</sup>

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1. Dwight: A Short but Comprehensive Syst. of Geog. of the World, 1810, See Preface.

2. Willets: An Easy Gram. of Geog. 10th Ed., Preface, pp.11-12

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The third is the fact that the  
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The fourth is the fact that the  
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The fifth is the fact that the  
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The sixth is the fact that the  
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The seventh is the fact that the  
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The quotation is taken from the edition published in 1823, but, from the fact that it was merely copied from Goldsmith, seems also to have been included in the first edition in 1814. Here we have memorization at the height of its popularity. The writer of a book deliberately recommends that the children memorize all the facts in a whole book, a few at a time. Each time the child recited new facts he was to repeat those which he had learned previously.

Morse and Morse in the twenty-third edition of a book published in 1822 are slightly less positive but go to even greater extremes in suggesting specific devices to aid the memory. In the preface we find the following:

"Another mode of aiding the memory is by an ingenious combination of the initials of names. The word VIBGYOR contains the initials of the seven primary colours, in the order in which they appear in the rainbow. This method may in some instances be successfully applied to Geography. For example: the three large towns, Boston, Albany and Detroit are near the same parallel of latitude, and the initials spell BAD. Montreal, Albany and New York are near the same meridian, and the initials spell MAN. These six towns, taken together, form a cross, on which BAD MAN is extended.

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the ninety-ninth is the fact that the  
the hundredth is the fact that the

Expedients of this kind may be profitable in some cases, yet if they are pursued very far they will become perilous, and rather burdensome than useful. The same remarks are applicable to rhymes.

There are various other methods of aiding the memory, but the most valuable, where the subject admits of them, are classification and a lucid order. These are the methods adopted in all the sciences. They are the methods the memory loves, and which make the acquisition of knowledge easy and delightful."<sup>1</sup>

Cummings in 1823 says that "when two or three particulars have been shown or explained, the learners should be immediately required to give them; and the questions and answers should be repeated so often and in so quick succession, that it will appear almost like trifling; and not more than two, three, or four new questions should be asked before they be put with previous ones, always observing to ask those most frequently, which appear most difficult to be remembered."<sup>2</sup>

Neither was map study exempt from memorization. It has been said in an earlier chapter that early in the nineteenth century there was introduced the custom of publishing separate atlases with the geographies. The quotations from Fowle also show that practically no use was made of the two

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1. Morse and Morse: A New Syst. of Geog., Anc. and Mod., 24d Ed., Preface, p. IV.
  2. Cummings: An Introduct. to Anc. and Mod. Geog., 9th Ed., Preface, p. VI.

The first part of the paper is devoted to a general  
discussion of the problem. It is shown that the  
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maps in Morse's book early in the century. The atlas published with Willets' book contained seven maps. Willets advocates having the child answer in writing the questions based on the maps and also having him spend half an hour each day reading the names of places in the vocabulary in the back of the book and finding the places on the maps.<sup>1</sup> Cummings makes an interesting suggestion as to the proper way to have the child study the latitude of places. He would tell the child that latitude means side and that a place in north latitude is on the north side of the equator and one in south latitude is on the south side of the equator?

Map drawing did not become common during the first two decades of the century although a number of atlases were in use before 1820. It was the custom to merely memorize these maps by finding places represented on them and by answering questions in the textbooks based on the maps. In 1821 Fowle introduced an innovation in the Monitorial School in Boston as is shown by the following:

"Soon after we left school Cummings' Geography and Maps came into general use, but as the maps were examined slightly, and no attempt was made to fix their outlines in the mind, the lessons were soon forgotten. We never saw a map drawn in any of the public schools of Boston, till we introduced the

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1. Willets. Preface, pp. 11-12.

2. Cummings, Preface, p. XV.





exercise in 1821. Occasionally a map had been drawn in some of the private schools, but it was done for show, for exhibition, and never was a common exercise until we made it so. We continued the practice twenty years, but it was many years before Map Drawing was introduced into any other public school, and we suspect that even now, very little is done at it."<sup>1</sup>

In this school Fowle undoubtedly developed map drawing far beyond anything we know now. With Fowle map drawing was an art. In 1860 Gedeon Thayer, principal of the Chauncey-Hall School in Boston, speaks of Fowle's school having been famous for the beautiful map coloring, printing and chirography done by the pupils.<sup>2</sup> Greater emphasis was placed on this phase of map drawing about 1835 when it was customary to send specimens to exhibits at fairs in the larger cities.

Before proceeding with the later changes in method it may be well to sum up at this point the trend of procedure up until about 1825 or 1830. We have reason to believe that before 1800 the geography texts were usually used merely as readers, but we have no absolute proof of the truth of a statement that such was the case. Memorizing was also gaining a foothold. By 1810 it was the common custom to use Morse's book as a reader and to memorize the question and

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1. Fowle: Geography. In the Com. Sch. Jour. 1852, p. 324.  
2. Thayer: Letters to a Young Teacher. In Henry Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Ed., Vol. 8, 1860, p. 34.

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answer material in Bingham's Catechism. Maps were used practically not at all before 1810, but during the next decade they came to be used rather commonly in locating places and answering questions in the textbooks. Fowle in 1821 introduced map drawing, but it did not become common for a number of years after that date. The method of almost absolute memorization of facts was characteristic of the years from 1815 to 1830.

After 1830 the subjects of maps, map drawing, and the interpretation of maps were much discussed. One of the early reformers is W. C. Woodbridge. In an article in American Annals of Education and Instruction in 1834 Mr. Woodbridge shows that he was considerably in advance of the other geographers of the day as far as the question of maps was concerned. Mention has been made in an earlier chapter of his ideas, but his influence was of such importance as to merit even further consideration. His ideas are best expressed in his own words:

"The pupil must therefore be first prepared to understand the true nature of a map, as a miniature representation of the mere outlines of objects on the earth. He must learn to conceive of a sheet of paper, as containing mountains, rivers, and kingdoms, to realize the imperfections of the representation, and to use it only as an aid to his imagination."<sup>1</sup>

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1. Woodbridge: Elementary Instruction in Geography. In Amer. Annals. of Ed., Vol. 4, 1834, p. 115.

The first part of the paper is devoted to a general  
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detailed study of the problem. It is shown that  
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On the next page in the same article he says,

"But let us ask again - is it the lines and spots of a map, or the great objects they represent, which the pupil is to learn? If the latter, in what way is he to effect it? By gazing at these mystical marks, and committing to memory all the names attached to them? We have no patience with those who thus teach their pupils a science, which may be called Chartology, but has no more title to the name of Geography, than the giving names to an equal number of Chinese characters."<sup>1</sup>

He then describes a method of having the child make a plan or map of his desk, room, playground, and the larger surrounding districts. This is to be continued until the child is quite familiar with these small maps and can make them on any desired scale. He is to be taught the use of the scale until he can immediately realize from a glance at it the magnitude of the objects represented by his map.

Map drawing increased in popularity during the next two decades. Fowle in 1846 favored the same procedure as Woodbridge in learning to draw maps.<sup>2</sup> The child is to begin with his own immediately neighborhood and to draw maps of the region, locating rivers, towns, and other features of

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1. Ibid, p. 116.

2. Mann: Geography. In The Com. Sch. Jour. Vol. 8, 1846, pp. 33-41. Extracts from a lecture by Fowle.

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interest. He is then to draw maps of his county, state, of the United States, and of each country in the world separately. Later he is to learn to draw the countries or states in groups. Fowle expressed these ideas in a lecture, part of which was published in The Common School Journal in 1846. Horace Mann, at that time editor of that journal, supports Fowle very forcibly in the following note which is published with Fowle's address:

"All that Demosthenes claimed for action, in delivery, map drawing is, in the study of geography. If there is a blackboard in the schoolroom, let the classes use it; let them keep it at work. If there is no blackboard, let one be provided forthwith. In default of procuring one, let them use a slate; use paper; use the walls of the schoolroom; use the floor; use the outside of the school-house. If nothing else can be used take charcoal and draw maps on the plastering, till it is blackened, and then take chalk, and whiten the charcoal, and so alternately. Draw maps, or something, somewhere."<sup>1</sup>

A very interesting device for studying latitude and longitude is suggested in the same article. The child was to imagine himself suspended in the air with the earth rotating below him while he remained stationary. He was to

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1. Ibid, p. 39.

The first part of the paper is devoted to a general  
discussion of the problem. It is shown that the  
problem is of great importance in the theory of  
differential equations. The second part is devoted to  
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imagine himself above a certain parallel and was to name the cities on the parallel passing under him. The racing of trade routes was also mentioned as a device to be used in map study, and the computation of the time of day in various places was a third.

Thayer<sup>1</sup> in 1860 advocates teaching a few facts about the use of the globe to the school as a whole and then teaching the definitions of such physical features as islands, bays, capes, rivers, peninsulas, etc. The child was to learn to draw these various features and then take up map drawing. He describes the same method of procedure as is described by Woodbridge and Fowle, beginning with the neighborhood, then drawing counties, states, countries separately and finally drawing them in groups. We find some hints of a change in a few of his suggestions. For example, he says that the teacher should give reasons for striking things shown by the map such as the small number of rivers in a region, and should explain the relation between the various zones and the animal and vegetable life within their borders. He mentions the use of "raised maps or maps in relief".

In connection with the topic of maps there is one other item which certainly merits consideration. The use of outline maps was immensely popular from 1840 to 1850 or 1855. Advertisements of Mitchell's Outline Maps are com-

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1. Thayer: Op.cit. pp. 81-91





mon in the journals of that period and they are often mentioned in reports made by State Superintendents of Public Instruction. Especially is this true in the New York Reports. In one of these reports there is published a report made by a county superintendent in which he describes the proper method of using the outline maps:

"Let every scholar who can read be supplied with a 'key to the maps'. In addition to this, I would say that every scholar in school should be allowed a slate. In the morning soon after the commencement of the school, let the teacher give out the geography lesson for the day, and suspend the map before the school. Suppose the lesson to be a geographical description of France. Let the map of France be hung out before them. Now let every scholar in school sketch upon their slates the outline of that country, as nearly accurate as they are able to do. Require them to mark down the boundaries upon their slates, and trace the principal rivers, mountains, gulfs, bays, &c., and mark down the characters for the principal cities, towns and villages. They may now turn to the key and ascertain their names, and mark them also upon the slate. Half an hour may be spent in the morning in this manner by beginners, (less time will be required for advanced scholars) when the lesson may be suspended till the afternoon. A review of a few minutes in the after part of the day will prepare them for reciting



the lesson correctly; and when the hour for recitation arrives, require every scholar to suspend all other studies and give their attention. Be sure and let the scholars be seated, so that all may have a fair view of the maps. The teacher then with a rod, some three or four feet in length, points to the map and asks the following, with other questions: 'What country does that represent?' The school in concert answer, 'France'."<sup>1</sup>

There follow a long series of questions as to boundaries, mountains, bays, rivers, cities, and other features represented on maps.

Does the knowledge of how these outline maps were used give us a better view as to where the emphasis was being placed? The writer believes it does. It shows that place geography was receiving a very great deal of attention. The emphasis was on the location of places. There was little effort to show the relation between climate and soil on the one hand and products on the other, as has already been shown in a previous chapter dealing with textbooks. The child used his memory rather than his reasoning powers. This is well illustrated by a number of questions asked by the visitors in the Boston schools in 1845. A few unselected questions from the list are as follows:

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1. Young: Ann. Rep't. of the Supt. of Com. Schs., New York State, 1845, p. 237.





"19. On which range of mountains is the line of perpetual snow most elevated above the ocean, on the Rocky Mountains of North America, or the Cordilleras of Mexico?

20. The city of Mexico is in 20° of N. latitude; the city of New Orleans is in 30° of N. latitude. Which has the warmest climate?

21. Name the rivers, gulfs, oceans, seas and straits, through which a vessel must pass in going from Pittsburg in Pennsylvania to Vienna in Austria.

22. On which bank of the Ohio is Cincinnati, on the right or left?

23. What are the principal natural and artificial productions of New England?

24. Over what continents and islands does the line of the equator pass?

25. What parts of the globe have the longest days?

26. If a merchant in Moscow dines at 5 o'clock P.M. and a merchant in Boston at 2 o'clock, which dines first?

27. Name the countries which lie around the Mediterranean Sea.

28. What countries lie around the Black Sea?<sup>1</sup>

Of the ten questions five, No. 21, 22, 24, 27, and 28 are strictly place geography questions, one, No. 23, involves only memory, and the other four require only a slight amount

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1. Boston School Reports, 1845.

The first part of the paper is devoted to a general  
discussion of the problem. It is shown that the  
problem is equivalent to a problem in the theory of  
differential equations. The second part of the paper  
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problem is equivalent to a problem in the theory of  
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of reasoning. The members of the committee saw the weakness, however, and criticized the schools in the following terms:

"The verbal examination which followed in geography confirmed the opinion which would be drawn from the answers to the printed questions. In a few schools the children seem to have been taught orally, and upon correct principles; but generally they were taken out of the common routine of questions. They could bound states and countries; name capitals, capes, and mountains; enumerate rivers, lakes, and bays; and answer a series of questions put by the master, of half an hour's duration; but, questioned as to the drainage of countries, their capacities for commerce, the causes which direct streams and determine the force of the water,- their want of comprehension of these and similar subjects, showed plainly, in almost every school, that they had learned geography as if it were only a catalogue of names of all the divisions of water, from ponds up to oceans; of land, from towns to empires."<sup>1</sup>

Later in the same report we find a still more adverse criticism.

"Some of our scholars could commence with Maine, and name every river running into the ocean, without missing a navigable stream; but if you ask them why the Mississippi flows southward with sluggish current, and unvarying width for a thousand miles, while the northern waters run in a

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1. *Ibid.*, p. 11.





different direction, spread out into vast expanses, rush through narrow passes and over steep precipices, to seek the ocean through the St. Lawrence, - if asked, we say, the reasons for such phenomena, they will stand in mute amazement, and their masters will perhaps complain of the unwonted severity of the examinations."<sup>1</sup>

Such criticisms were undoubtedly merited, for the questions presented by the writer above contain more questions demanding power to reason than do any other ten consecutive questions in the entire list. Among the others we find more questions dealing with place geography. There were a number of questions asking the direction of the courses of rivers. These seem to have caused a great deal of trouble. It is clear that the pupils were entirely familiar with only the lists of items that they could repeat from memory and the places which they could locate on maps.

Boston was not different from other places in this particular case. One county superintendent in New York State says that in 1845 "it has long been the practice to put a geography and atlas early into the hands of young pupils, and to require them to learn 'all the course print the first time through' in the geography, and to search the maps for all answers to the questions laid down in the book without at all having any correct notions as to the shape or form of the

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1. Ibid, pp. 24-25.



The first part of the paper is devoted to a general discussion of the problem. It is shown that the problem is of great importance in the theory of the differential equations of the second order. The second part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the solutions of the differential equations of the second order. It is shown that the solutions of the differential equations of the second order are of great importance in the theory of the differential equations of the second order.

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earth, or the laws which govern it, in its revolutions, or scarcely any of the first principles of the science."<sup>1</sup> A second county superintendent in the same state grows sarcastic and says that he has heard several classes in geography bound states and counties with a considerable degree of accuracy, when none of them could point to the north, south, east, or west. He adds,

"Indeed, a portion of them were not aware that these terms relate to the four cardinal points of the compass. Still more; some of them say that 'geography is a description of the earth', but do not know as they ever saw the earth. They have no idea that they live upon it."<sup>2</sup>

This discussion of methods of presenting material and the sort of material presented during the last decade in the first half of the century grew out of the discussion of the use of outline maps, it will be recalled. Naturally one asks if this period of memorizing and fact learning is continuous with the early period discussed in the first part of the chapter. Was there no break between the two? A few examples serve to show that there was no such break. In 1827 an anonymous writer in The American Journal of Education writes that

"A book containing a concise list of towns, rivers,

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1. Young: Ann. Rep't of Supt. of Com. Schs., New York State, 1845, pp. 205-206.
  2. Ibid, 1845, p. 21.



and mountains, together with a condensed account of the commerce, productions, and climate of various countries, is placed in the hands of the pupil; and he, unconscious of any other manner of becoming acquainted with it, commences the same toilsome, tedious efforts to commit page after page, to memory."<sup>1</sup>

In 1832 an observer in the common schools of Connecticut writes that children might be found who had committed to memory their grammar, their geography and the introduction to the spelling book, half a dozen times each, and who yet were no wiser for practical purposes than before.<sup>2</sup> Grammar and geography were said to be committed to memory rather than taught.<sup>3</sup>

Thus it can be seen that this favorite method of learning the facts of geography had not been discarded. During the period when outline maps were in vogue the material memorized was different than in the earlier period, but that was the most significant part of the change. A new way of using the pupil's time had been discovered. At an earlier date he had memorized his textbook. Now he memorized bare facts presented by means of a map.

But had there been no advance? We have already shown that Woodbridge's ideas about maps were a decided advance over what had preceded, and an effort will be made to show

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1. Allen, Common Education. Prevalent Defects and Proposed Remedies. In Amer. Jour. of Ed. Vol. 2, 1827, p. 159-160.
  2. An Observer, Common Schools of Connecticut. In Amer. Annals of Ed. Vol. 2, 1832, p. 247.
  3. Ibid., p. 248.

The first part of the paper is devoted to a general discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The second part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The third part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The fourth part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The fifth part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The sixth part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The seventh part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The eighth part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The ninth part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The tenth part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science.



that progress was being made along other lines as well. The outline maps were certainly an improvement as a method of conducting drill work in place geography, but their use was overdone. Too much attention was given to mere place geography. From 1830 to 1850 the blackboard was another item of apparatus which played an important part in the progress made in teaching geography as might be inferred by the quotation on map-drawing from Horace Mann. Throughout these two decades we find many advertisements of blackboards in the school journals, and state superintendents often recommend the use of blackboards in connection with arithmetic and geography, especially the latter. In an item in The Connecticut Common School Journal for 1839 we find that the town of Leominster has reported "putting in blackboards so that pupils may be required to draw maps more often."<sup>1</sup> Improved globes were also advertised extensively and a number of lectures and articles on their use are to be found in the journals of the time.<sup>2</sup>

Articles in the school journals prove that progress was being made in more ways than in the introduction of new apparatus. In a review of a textbook in the American Journal of Education and Instruction in 1826 the editor says,

"It is gratifying to observe in modern schoolbooks

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1. Abstract of the Massachusetts School Returns. In Conn. Com. Sch. Jour., Vol. II, 1839, p. 161.
  2. Fleming: The Use of Globes in Teaching Geography and Astronomy. In Lect. Before Amer. Institute of Instruct., Boston, 1841, pp. 163-180.



on geography that authors and teachers are abandoning the useless and inconsistent method of conducting a child to the centre of the system, for his first lesson in a science which professes to be a description of the earth. We wish this rational spirit of improvement were permitted to find its way into the study of geography as now pursued, and abolish the unmeaning practice of commencing with the form and composition of 'the terraqueous globe', instead of with that portion of the earth's surface which falls under the young learner's daily notice ----- .

We confess that we should like to see the method of alternate printed question and answer abandoned, and recourse more generally had to the simple form of consecutive paragraphs, to be enlivened by the oral explanations and questions of the teacher. That is the most efficient kind of instruction in which the manual furnished by the author is used merely as a book of outlines to be filled up by the teacher's own mind. The writer of a school book should not go before the instructor, and, by a limited number of questions, preclude a wide range of thought, on the part of the pupil."<sup>1</sup>

This is merely the beginning of a determined campaign for better geography teaching. In 1830 Lemuel Shattuck

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1. Reviews of textbooks. Amer. Jour. of Ed. Vol. I, 1826, p.176.

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writes that the child should get his beginnings in geography by being shown a plan of his own dwelling house. He advocates beginning the study of geography with one's own neighborhood and condemns the practice of requiring a child to begin with the definitions of astronomical and geographical terms.<sup>1</sup> He advocates the use of blackboards and paper for maps and plans. The idea of beginning with the home seems to have taken a strong grip on the writers of the time. One anonymous writer in The Common School Journal in 1842 suggests calling the attention of a two-year-old child to the arrangement of the rooms in his home and teaching it which direction is east, west, north, or south. The child was to be taught to tell the parent in which room was the stove, the clock, or other article of furniture. Next it was to learn the geography of the surrounding fields and was to learn to locate trees, woods, stones, etc.<sup>2</sup> In the same journal for the preceding year we find a series of nineteen articles purporting to have been written by an experienced teacher in a large system in a series of letters to a young girl just about to begin teaching geography. Again the emphasis is placed on beginning with the child's immediate surroundings.<sup>3</sup> Horace Mann expressed similar ideas in this connection. He makes a good point when he criticizes severely the textbook

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1. Shattuck: Improvement in Our Common Schools. In Amer. Annals of Ed., Vol. I, 1830, p. 138.
  2. Anon. Beginning to Teach Geography. In The Com. Sch. Journal, Vol. 4, 1842, p. 262.
  3. Letters From a Teacher to her Young Female Friend, Just About Commencing to Keep School. In The Com. Sch. Jour. Vol. 3, 1841.





writers for treating the natural features of the earth under the head of civil or political divisions and thus breaking the natural units into artificial parts.<sup>1</sup>

From 1849 until 1852 William Fowle was editor of The Common School Journal. It is natural to expect something new and original from this old geographer, and he doesn't disappoint. It was just previous to this time that Sir John Franklin tried in vain to find a Northwest Passage. Fowle prints in his journal the story of his loss and also the story of other earlier efforts to find the same passage.<sup>2</sup> He publishes <sup>clippings</sup> from newspapers telling of the efforts of searching parties to find Franklin, of the first voyage of a whaler from Bering Sea<sup>3</sup> into the Artic, of the efforts to find both north and south poles, and of other explorations. With each of these little articles there is a recommendation that it be used as the basis for a geography lesson dealing with these little-known regions. Fowle apparently recognized the value of motivation.

In a series of articles under the title of Dunn's School Teacher's Manual in the Connecticut Common School Journal for 1839 there is a great deal of material dealing with methods of teaching. One of the articles deals with

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1. Mann: Fifth Ann. Rep't of Sec. of Board of Ed., 1842, p. 46.  
2. In The Com. Sch. Jour., Vol. 11, 1849, pp. 377-379.  
3. Ibid., Vol. 13, 1851, pp. 133-137, 330.



geography teaching and calls for training of the child in observation. He is to learn the name of every object of importance which he sees and is to be taught to observe objects from various points of view, and is to have pointed out to him the varying positions of the sun. The writer in defending his position says that what he advocates is not mere theory but that it "has been done, and still is done, in the schools of Pestilozzi and his followers in Europe."<sup>1</sup>

Here we have a direct reference to the methods of Pestalozzi. Other articles also show traces of his influence. Barnas Sears, Secretary of the State Board of Education for Massachusetts in 1852 writes in his Fifteenth Annual Report,

"In geography, as taught in the schools, there is great confusion, arising partly from the want of clear views of what can and of what cannot be well taught to the young, and partly from a want of correct ideas in respect to the order in which the several facts and principles of this course of study should be taught. The great importance attached to political geography and to statistics, for children, shows that neither the nature of the youthful mind, nor the comparative utility of different parts of geography, nor the dependence of political upon physical geography, has

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1. Dunn's School Teacher's Manual. In Conn. Com. Sch. Jour., Vol. 2, 1839, p. 32.

The first part of the book is devoted to a general  
introduction of the subject, and to a description of the  
principles of the method. The second part contains  
a detailed account of the experiments, and the results  
obtained. The third part is devoted to a discussion of the  
theoretical aspects of the problem, and to a comparison  
of the experimental results with the theoretical predictions.  
The fourth part contains a summary of the work, and  
some concluding remarks. The fifth part is a list of  
references, and the sixth part is an index.

The book is written in a clear and concise style, and  
is suitable for use as a text book in a course of  
study. It is also suitable for use as a reference work,  
as it contains a large amount of information on the  
subject. The book is well illustrated, and the  
figures are of high quality. The book is a valuable  
contribution to the literature of the subject, and is  
highly recommended.



been duly considered. Has the child any comprehension of the political interests and civil institutions of the nations of the earth? Can the study of them, in very early childhood, be anything but a mere work of memory?"<sup>1</sup>

Whether this be the influence of Pestalozzi or of Ritter, it had its origin across the ocean. It was not a native influence that caused Sears thus to study the needs and capacities of little children. Still another writer in Barnard's American Journal of Education in 1859 in quoting from the instructions of the school committee of Waltham, Massachusetts shows the influence of Pestalozzi or possibly of Ritter. The following is a portion of the quotation:

"Take your children occasionally to walk; go to the hills; show them how the presence of a brook or river can be foretold from the extent of a valley, the nature of the soil, and the kind of vegetations, whether forests or grass; show them the roundness of the earth from the increasing dip of the horizon, as you ascend; make them perceive how beautiful the illusion by which we always exaggerate vertical heights and underestimate horizontal distances; call their attention to the difference in soils and in the rocks, and point out the effects of the soil and of the location upon vegetation."<sup>2</sup>

Here we have the Pestalozzian training in observation

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1. Sears: Fifteenth Ann. Rep't of The Sec. of the Board of Ed., Massachusetts, 1852, p. 65.
  2. Hill: The True Order of Studies. In Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Ed., Vol. 7, 1859, p. 275.



and the emphasis upon physical geography as in the school of Ritter. But why should we call this a foreign influence? What reason have we for saying that geography teaching in America was affected by what went on in Europe? A quotation from De Guimps' Pestalozzi, His Life and Work is strikingly similar to several of those which have just been presented. Pestalozzi and Rousseau both believed in teaching from nature. De Guimps says of his first lessons in geography,

"The first elements of geography were taught us from the land itself. We were first taken to a narrow valley not far from Yverdun, where the river Buron runs. After taking a general view of the valley, we were made to examine the details, until we had obtained an exact and complete idea of it. We were then told to take some of the clay in beds on one side of the valley, and fill the baskets which we had brought for the purpose. On our return to the castle, we took our places at the long tables, and reproduced in relief the valley we had just studied, each one doing the part which had been allotted to him. In the course of the next few days, more walks and more explorations, each day on higher ground, and each time with a further extension of our work. Only when our relief was finished were we shown the map, which by this means we did not see till we were in a position to understand it."<sup>1</sup>

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1. De Guimps' Pestalozzi, His Life and Work. p. 255.





The objection may be made that no instance has been cited of work in clay or sand by American geography teachers. This is true, but we were the learners, and were not yet ready to accept all of the European innovations. That came later. We do seem to have accepted Pestalozzi's ideas as to observation, or perhaps we received them through Ritter, the pupil of Pestalozzi, and the great advocate of physical geography. But how did we get the ideas of the European geographers? Several persons appear to have been influential in introducing European methods and ideas in the teaching of geography. Among these are Calvin E. Stowe, Horace Mann, and Victor Guyot. Stowe was a Cincinnati man who visited Prussia in 1837 and submitted a report on the Prussian school system to the Ohio legislature after his return. Mann visited a number of European countries in 1843 and devoted a large part of his report to a description of the Prussian schools.

Stowe brings to our attention the manner in which the Prussians related the natural sciences, geography, and history in discussing the needs of man. The material was so organized as to answer certain questions about the needs of man and the satisfaction of these needs.

"(c) Where and how do men find the means to supply their wants, and make themselves comfortable and happy in this life?





The vegetable, the mineral, and the animal kingdoms are here brought to view, for materials; together with agriculture and manufactures, as the means of converting these materials to our use. Geography, with special reference to the productions of countries, and their civil, literary, and religious institutions; towns, their organization and employments. Geography is sometimes taught by blank charts, to which the students are required to affix the names of the several countries, rivers, mountains, principal towns, &c., and then state the productions and institutions for which they are remarkable. Sometimes the names of countries, rivers, &c. are given, and the pupil is required to construct an outline chart of their localities.

In respect to all the above points, the native country is particularly studied; its capabilities, its productions, its laws, its institutions, its history, &c., are investigated, with especial reference to its ability of supplying the physical, social, and moral wants of its inhabitants. Under this head the pupils are taught to appreciate their native country, to venerate and love its institutions, to understand what is necessary to their perfection, and to imbibe a spirit of pure and generous patriotism. It is scarcely necessary to add, that all the instructions under this fifth head is confined to the fundamental and simplest principles of the several branches referred to.<sup>1</sup>

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1. Barnard: Courses of Instruction in the Primary Schools of Germany. In Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Ed., Vol. 8, p. 378-379. Quotations from Stowe's and Mann's Reports.

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The most significant part of this quotation appears to be that in which reference is made to "blank charts". Apparently these blank charts are outline maps. We cannot say that there was any connection between the use of outline maps in Prussia before 1840 and the great popularity of the same materials in the United States during the following decade, but the mention of outline maps in Stowe's report provides some grounds for such a belief.

In 1843 Horace Mann, at that time Secretary of the Board of Education of the State of Massachusetts, visited the schools of Prussia, England, Scotland, and other European countries. Mann says of geography in the Prussian Schools,

"The practice seemed to be uniform, however, of beginning with objects perfectly familiar to the child; the school-house with the grounds around it, the home with its yard or gardens, and the street leading from the one to the other. First of all, the children were initiated into the idea of space, without which we can know no more of geography than we can of history without ideas of time. Mr. Carl Ritter of Berlin, probably the greatest geographer now living, expressed a decided opinion to me, that this was the true mode of beginning.

Children, too, commence this study very early; soon after entering school; but no notions are given them which they are not perfectly able to comprehend, reproduce, and express.

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I found geography taught almost wholly from large maps suspended against the walls, and by delineations on the black-board. And here, this skill of teachers and pupils in drawing did admirable service. The teacher traced the outline of a county on the suspended map, or drew one upon the blackboard, accompanying the exhibition by an oral lecture, and, at the next recitation, the pupils were expected to repeat what they had seen and heard. And, in regard to the natural divisions of the earth, or the political boundaries of countries, a pupil was not considered as having given any proof that he had a correct image in his mind, until he could go to the blackboard, and reproduce it from the ends of his fingers. I witnessed no lessons unaccompanied by these tests."<sup>1</sup>

This part of Mann's report appeared not only in the official publication but also in Barnard's American Journal of Education in 1860. It connects the American movement to begin the study of geography with the home rather definitely with Ritter's ideas on that subject. The ideas of Ritter are identical with those expressed by American writers. Map drawing shows the same popularity as in the American schools. According to Mann the Prussian schools were further advanced than were our own in the methods of teaching geography; so it would seem that they had been acting as teacher and we as pupil.

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1. Mann: Seventh Ann. Rep't of the Sec. of the Board of Ed., p.113

1. The first part of the report is devoted to a general

description of the object of the study and the

method of investigation.

2. The second part of the report is devoted to a

detailed description of the object of the study

and the method of investigation.

3. The third part of the report is devoted to a

detailed description of the object of the study

and the method of investigation.

4. The fourth part of the report is devoted to a

detailed description of the object of the study

and the method of investigation.

5. The fifth part of the report is devoted to a

detailed description of the object of the study

and the method of investigation.

6. The sixth part of the report is devoted to a

detailed description of the object of the study

and the method of investigation.

7. The seventh part of the report is devoted to a

detailed description of the object of the study

and the method of investigation.

The argument may be advanced that if we were so ready to accept the ideas of European teachers we should not have been so willing to retain our old methods of memorization. The answer is that all of Europe's ideas were not of the type of those just described. Pestalozzi, for example, had some peculiar devices for memorizing the locations of places as evidenced in an article in Barnard's American Journal of Education in 1859. No device ever recommended by an American geographer could have deserved much greater condemnation than that described in the following quotation:

"Thus, for instance, one of the subdivisions of Europe is Germany. Let the child first become acquainted, beyond the power of forgetting them, with the subdivisions of Germany into ten circles. Now let the names of the cities of Germany be laid before him in alphabetical order, to be read; there being, at the name of each city, the number of the circle in which it lies. As soon as he can read these names of cities fluently, let him be shown how the numbers annexed to them refer to the head above, and the child will after a few lessons be able to locate all the cities of Germany according to the heads thus set up above them. Let there be put Before him, for instance the following names of German places with figures:-

The first part of the report is devoted to a general  
description of the area, its location, and its  
importance. It is then followed by a detailed  
account of the work done during the year, and  
the results obtained. The report concludes with  
a summary of the work done, and a list of  
the references used.

The second part of the report is devoted to a  
detailed account of the work done during the  
year, and the results obtained. It is then  
followed by a summary of the work done, and  
a list of the references used.

The third part of the report is devoted to a  
detailed account of the work done during the  
year, and the results obtained. It is then  
followed by a summary of the work done, and  
a list of the references used.

The fourth part of the report is devoted to a  
detailed account of the work done during the  
year, and the results obtained. It is then  
followed by a summary of the work done, and  
a list of the references used.

The fifth part of the report is devoted to a  
detailed account of the work done during the  
year, and the results obtained. It is then  
followed by a summary of the work done, and  
a list of the references used.

The sixth part of the report is devoted to a  
detailed account of the work done during the  
year, and the results obtained. It is then  
followed by a summary of the work done, and  
a list of the references used.

The seventh part of the report is devoted to a  
detailed account of the work done during the  
year, and the results obtained. It is then  
followed by a summary of the work done, and  
a list of the references used.

The eighth part of the report is devoted to a  
detailed account of the work done during the  
year, and the results obtained. It is then  
followed by a summary of the work done, and  
a list of the references used.

The ninth part of the report is devoted to a  
detailed account of the work done during the  
year, and the results obtained. It is then  
followed by a summary of the work done, and  
a list of the references used.

The tenth part of the report is devoted to a  
detailed account of the work done during the  
year, and the results obtained. It is then  
followed by a summary of the work done, and  
a list of the references used.



Acchen	8	Allendorf	5	Altona	10
Aalen	3	Allersperg	2	Altorf	1
Abendburg	4	Alschausen	3	Altranstadt	9
Aberthan	11	Alsleben	10	Altwasser	13
Acken	10	Altena	8	Alkerdisen	8
Aigremont	8	Altenan	10	Amberg	2
Ala	1	Altenburg	9	Ambras	1
Allenbach	5	Altenberg	9	Amneburg	6

He may then read as follows: Acchen is in the Westphalian circle. Abendberg is in the Franconian circle. Aacken is in the Lower Saxon circle; &c."<sup>1</sup>

This is a case of pure memory and of a device originated expressly as an aid to the memory. Europe was not yet clear of the method of memorization; so, if we were learning from her, there was no reason why we should have been free from this method.

Phillips cites another channel through which the methods of Ritter probably made themselves felt in America.<sup>2</sup> He gives Arnold Guyot more credit for introducing Ritter's ideas and methods into the schools of this country than he gives to Horace Mann. Guyot was a pupil of Ritter's who came to this country in 1848. From 1848 to 1854 he was in the employ of the Massachusetts Board of Education as an inspector and institute lecturer. In 1854 he went to Princeton

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1. Pestalozzi-Methods of Elem. Instruction. In Barnard's Amer. Jour. of Ed. Vol. 7, 1859, p. 684.  
2. Phillips, (Op.cit.) pp. 508-509.



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59	2160	2161	2162	2163	2164
60	2165	2166	2167	2168	2169
61	2170	2171	2172	2173	2174
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71	2220	2221	2222	2223	2224
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73	2230	2231	2232	2233	2234
74	2235	2236	2237	2238	2239
75	2240	2241	2242	2243	2244
76	2245	2246	2247	2248	2249
77	2250	2251	2252	2253	2254
78	2255	2256	2257	2258	2259
79	2260	2261	2262	2263	2264
80	2265	2266	2267	2268	2269
81	2270	2271	2272	2273	2274
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as an instructor in physical geography and geology. His first work published in this country was entitled The Earth and Man and was published in Boston in 1849. The influence of Ritter was undoubtedly felt in the United States before the arrival of Guyot, but it is reasonable to suppose that a truly great geographer so intimately connected with the public school system of Massachusetts for six years and later a professor in one of our leading universities would greatly increase the influence of his former teacher, especially since he himself believed in the same principles as did Ritter, as is shown by the following quotation from The Earth and Man:

"No, Geography - and I regret that usage forbids me to employ the most suitable word, Geology, to designate the general science of which I speak, - Geography ought to be something different from a mere description. It should compare, it should interpret, it should rise to the how and the wherefore of the phenomena which it describes. It is not enough for it coldly to anatomize the globe, by merely taking cognizance of the arrangement of the various parts which constitute it. It must endeavor to seize those incessant mutual actions of the different portions of physical nature upon each other, of inorganic nature upon organized beings, upon man in particular, and upon the successive development of human societies; in a word, studying the reciprocal



action of all these forces, the perpetual play of which constitutes what might be called the life of the globe, it should, if I may venture to say so, take up its physiology. To understand it in any other way, is to deprive geography of its vital principle; it is to make it a collection of partial, unmeaning facts; it is to fasten upon it forever the character of dryness, with which it has so often and so justly been reproached. For what is dryness in a science, except the absence of those principles, of those ideas, of those general results, by which well-constituted minds are nurtured?

Physical geography, therefore ought to be, not only the description of our earth, but the physical science of the globe, or the science of the general phenomena of the present life of the globe in reference to their connection and their mutual dependence.

This is the geography of Humboldt and of Ritter."<sup>1</sup>

Was not this the source of strength for the movement toward relating geography to what could be actually observed? Was it not these ideas of Ritter which were back of the movement by the Boston school visitors to demand more than mere memorization, to demand a clearer understanding of causes and relationships? Were ideas similar to these not the cause of the sarcastic sayings of the county superintendent in New York State? There certainly was a similarity of views

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1. Guyot: The Earth and Man., pp. 3-4.

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involved. Guyot and Ritter had advocated making physical geography the very basis of the science and studying geography through the interrelationships of the various factors involved. In our American schools we find the beginnings of the same ideas. They had taken root even before Guyot came, and it was only natural that they should continue to grow with his influence to aid them.

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CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

The writer has endeavored to trace the history of the movement to include geography in the curriculum, the change in the content of textbooks, and the progress made in the development of methods of teaching. The progress made along each of these lines can be summed up in a few words. In 1776 we find geography taught incidentally, as a part of such subjects as navigation, astronomy, and mathematics. In 1800 we find it being taught in a number of the elementary schools and in academies, but still it is a new subject. From 1820 to 1830 it gains rapidly because of the great movement of people into the West, but there is still considerable opposition to its introduction into the curriculum. However, progress is steady and sure, and during the next decade two states, Missouri and Massachusetts, enact laws which make geography a part of the curriculum of the elementary school. During the following decade, 1840 to 1850, the states of Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, Virginia, Ohio, Illinois, and Wisconsin enact laws either requiring the teaching of geography in the schools or listing it as one of the subjects in which a teacher must be examined. This may be said to be the status of the subject in 1860 as far as legislation is concerned. At that time it was clearly accepted as a part of the curriculum.

# THE HISTORY OF THE

REIGN OF KING CHARLES THE FIRST

IN THE YEAR OF HIS REIGN 1625

BY JOHN BURNET

IN TWO VOLUMES

LONDON, Printed by J. Streater, at the Sign of the Gun, in St. Dunstons Church-yard, 1680.

IN TWO VOLUMES

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In an earlier chapter mention was made of the influence of the westward movement and of our increasing foreign commerce upon the position occupied by geography in the curriculum. These influences were discussed especially in connection with the gain made from 1820 to 1830. Of course both of these influences continued to exert great pressure throughout the period. No sooner was the Ohio valley settled than the pioneer moved on to the region beyond the Mississippi. First the states just west of the Mississippi were settled, and after the annexation of Texas in 1845 settlers poured into that state. There had also been a steady movement of settlers across the plains to Washington and Oregon. The Mexican War opened up vast new territories to settlement, and finally there came the California gold rush. There was created a demand for knowledge as to the character of all this great expanse of country. Many wished to move to the West, and even those who did not leave their old homes east of the Mississippi were interested in a region which was to be the home of friends and relatives. As the country grew national pride also grew, and naturally the man who was so proud of the vast extent of his native country wished his children to know just as much as possible about that country.

During this same period American commerce increased very rapidly. American ships, manned by American sailors,





were to be found in every port of importance in the world. American sailing vessels were the fastest in existence at that time, and we held our supremacy on the seas until after the Civil War. As a result of our increased commerce there grew up a demand for foreign commodities. Things which had once been luxuries became necessities. Our needs increased, and at the same time the demand for our agricultural products caused our wealth to increase. We wanted the products of foreign countries, and we were able to pay for them. Closer commercial relations with foreign peoples resulted in a breaking down of barriers and a greater interest in and knowledge of not only the commodities produced in other countries but also in the people themselves. Knowledge of foreign countries and foreign peoples led to a demand for more such knowledge. The demand for foreign products led to a demand for knowledge as to where those products were produced and where they could be most economically obtained. Just as the westward movement called for more knowledge of physical geography, so our increased commerce called for more knowledge of economic and commercial geography.

Side by side with these economic changes we find certain social changes. Throughout the country cities were springing up, and the people of the cities depended upon the farms for their food. No longer did each man produce everything he needed. There was division of labor. Here we have



economic and social changes working side by side, or, more properly, one growing out of the other. Society tended to become a whole rather than merely a group of separate units. The turnpikes, the steamboats, the railroads all tended to bind the various parts of the country together and to increase the amount of travel from one part of the country to another.

All of these changes demanded a fuller knowledge of other regions than the one little spot where a man spent most of his life. Geography was designed to supply such a knowledge, and so it was bound to increase in popularity.

The changes in the textbooks are also clearly due to changes in demand. Early in the century there was a tendency to fill the geographies with material dealing with curious physical phenomena, the peculiar manners and customs of peoples in various parts of the world, the locations of cities, mountains, rivers, bays, capes, islands, and other physical features, the boundaries of political divisions, and a score of little details having to do with the administration of our national government. In a word, it was the geography suited to a sailor or trader, with some more or less useful odds and ends thrown in because there was no other place in the curriculum for them. The great space devoted to curiosities is attributable to the interest in such a subject which will invariably be shown by an untravelled





and comparatively ignorant people.

At a slightly later date the numerous references to bridges, turnpikes, and canals reflect the interest of the people in internal improvements. The turnpikes and bridges give way to railroads and steamboats at a later date, but the canals retain their place throughout the period. During the decades following 1830 more attention is given to both the physical and commercial phases of the subject. The textbooks deal in greater detail with these two phases of geography and omit much of the useless material of an earlier date. However, it is just at the close of the period that commercial geography begins to forge ahead of physical geography in importance.

The change in method corresponds to the content of the textbooks. The material in the early textbook was suitable for little other than memorization, and consequently it was memorized. Later, under the influence of Pestalozzi, Ritter, and others, the method of presentation changes. The little child begins his study of geography with his immediate surroundings and then gradually goes forward into the less familiar material. Emphasis is placed on observation, and, curiously enough, this fits right in with the emphasis placed on physical geography by the school of Ritter and his followers. During the last three decades of the period there is an insistent

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demand that the child be given an opportunity to use his reasoning powers in connection with geography. The emphasis on physical geography affords an excellent opportunity of this sort, and it is in the works of Gayot that we see this best illustrated.

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APPENDIX





APPENDIX

GEOGRAPHY TEXTBOOKS IN USE BETWEEN 1776 AND 1860.

1. Adams, Alexander

Summary of Geography and History, London, 1754.

2. Adams, Henry W.

Geographic Assistant, Middletown, 1840.

3. Andrews, C.C.

Lancasterian Geography, N.Y. 1st Ed. 1820.

4. Ansted, D.T.

Physical Geography, London, 1852.

5. Anthon, Charles

Ancient and Mediaeval Geography, N.Y. 1849.

6. Arnold, T.K.

Putz's Manual of Ancient Geography and History,  
N.Y. 1849.

7. Balbi, Adrian

Abridgement of Universal Geography, 1st Ed.,  
Boston, 1835.

8. Barrington, A.

Treatise on Physical Geography, N.Y., 1850.

9. Bevan, W. L.

Manual of Ancient Geogfaphy, London, 1852.

10. Biot, J.B.

Analytical Geography, N.Y. 1846.



11. Blake, J.L.

Geography for Children, N.Y. 1845

Textbook in Geography and Chronology. Providence, 1814

American Universal Geography, N.Y. 1833.

New American Universal Geography, Boston, 1835.

New American School Geography, Boston, 1837.

12. Bliss, Sylvester

Analysis of Geography, Boston, 1847.

13. Bohun -

Geography, 1713.

14. Butler, Frederick

Elements of Geography and History, Wethersfield, 1825.

15. Butler, Samuel

Ancient Geography, Boston, n.d. Geographica Classica.

Philadelphia, 1847.

16. Callicatt, T.C.

Handbook of Universal Geography, N.Y. 1854.

Cyclopaedia of Geography, N.Y. 1854.

17. Camp, D. N.

Primary Geography, Hartford, 1861.

Geography, Hartford, 1859.

18. Carpenter, Lant

Introduction to the Geography of the New Testament.

Cambridge, 1st Ed., 1811.

19. Carter, J.H. and W. H. Brooks

Geography of Massachusetts, Boston, 1830.

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Geography of Worcester County, Boston, 1830

Geography of Essex County, Boston, 1830.

20. Carter, Cornelius S.

Elements of Physical and Political Geography,

Boston, 1855.

New Series of Geography Questions, Providence, 1832.

21. Dwight, Nathaniel

Geography of the World, N.Y. 1795.

22. Gordon, Patrick

Geography Anatomized, London, 1754.

23. Hale, Nathan

Epitome of Universal Geography, Boston, 1830.

24. Hall, S.R.

Geography for Children. Springfield, 1832.

25. Hallworth, Thomas

Outlines of Geography, N.Y. 1846.

26. Hart, Joseph C.

Popular System of Practical Geography, N.Y. 1851.

Geography for Use of Schools, N.Y. 1825.

27. Hawkes, P.

American Comparison; Sketch of Geography.

Philadelphia, 1827.

28. Hogarth, G.

Outlines of Geography, London, 26 Ed. 1850.

29. Holmes, John

The Grammarian's Geography and Astronomy, London,

1851.

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30. Hubbard, John

Rudiments of Geography, Walpole, 1803.

31. Hughes, Edward

Outlines of Physical Geography, London, 1853.

32. Huntington, H.G.

System of Modern Geography, Hartford, 1854.

33. Koepper, A. L.

The World in the Middle Ages; A Historical  
Geography, N.Y. 1854.

34. Leavitt, Dudley

Juvenile Geography. Concord, 1829.

35. Lyon, S.M.

Musical Geography, Troy, 1849.

36. Walte-Brun, Conrad.

System of Universal Geography. Boston, 1836.

37. Mather, J.H.

Manual of Geography. Hartford. Revised Ed. 1850.

38. Mayo, Robert

View of Ancient Geography and History, Philadelphia,  
1813.

39. Melish, John

Geographic Description of the World. Philadelphia,  
1818.

Geographic Description of the United States,  
Philadelphia, 1816.

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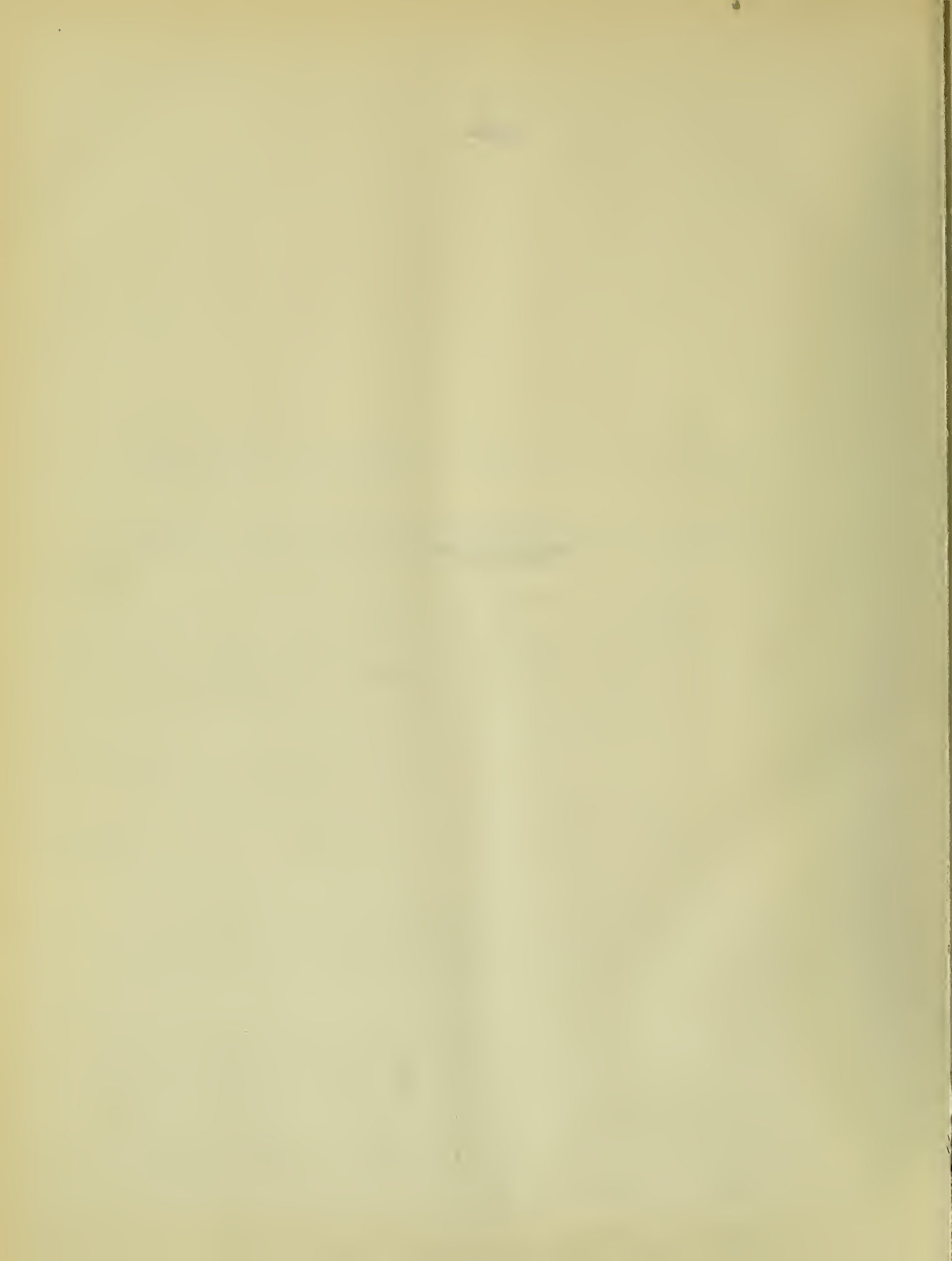
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1. The first part of the paper is devoted to a general discussion of the problem. It is shown that the problem is of great importance in the theory of the differential equations of the second order. The second part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the solutions of the differential equations of the second order. It is shown that the solutions of the differential equations of the second order are of great importance in the theory of the differential equations of the second order. The third part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the solutions of the differential equations of the second order. It is shown that the solutions of the differential equations of the second order are of great importance in the theory of the differential equations of the second order.

2. The second part of the paper is devoted to the study of the properties of the solutions of the differential equations of the second order. It is shown that the solutions of the differential equations of the second order are of great importance in the theory of the differential equations of the second order.

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# THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER I. THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

IN THE YEAR 1492, CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, an Italian, discovered the continent of America.

He sailed from Spain on the 3d of September, and after a voyage of 33 days, he discovered the island of San Salvador.

1492

On the 12th of October, he discovered the continent of America.

He sailed for Spain on the 15th of December, and arrived on the 15th of January, 1493.

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He sailed for Spain on the 15th of December, and arrived on the 15th of January, 1493.

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The first part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the general principles of the theory of the structure of the atom. It is shown that the structure of the atom is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, and that the laws of quantum mechanics are determined by the laws of the special theory of relativity. The second part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the structure of the nucleus. It is shown that the structure of the nucleus is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, and that the laws of quantum mechanics are determined by the laws of the special theory of relativity.

The third part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the structure of the molecule. It is shown that the structure of the molecule is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, and that the laws of quantum mechanics are determined by the laws of the special theory of relativity. The fourth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the structure of the crystal. It is shown that the structure of the crystal is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, and that the laws of quantum mechanics are determined by the laws of the special theory of relativity.

The fifth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the structure of the solid. It is shown that the structure of the solid is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, and that the laws of quantum mechanics are determined by the laws of the special theory of relativity. The sixth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the structure of the liquid. It is shown that the structure of the liquid is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, and that the laws of quantum mechanics are determined by the laws of the special theory of relativity.

The seventh part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the structure of the gas. It is shown that the structure of the gas is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, and that the laws of quantum mechanics are determined by the laws of the special theory of relativity. The eighth part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the structure of the plasma. It is shown that the structure of the plasma is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, and that the laws of quantum mechanics are determined by the laws of the special theory of relativity.



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